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ABSTRACT

The document contains the proceedings of a February 1988, conference on alternative futures for rural special education. After a keynote address titled "Rural Is Where the Heart Is" by Phyllis Kaplan, the approximately 100 presentations focused on such topics as the following: work experience service delivery; needs based approach for comprehensive family services; using peer coaching; cooperative learning and effective instruction strategies to promote social integration of middle school and junior high school exceptional students; transition team building; preparation of personnel for minority handicapped children; serving an at-risk population in a rural area; a cooperative model program for college-age learning disabled; quantitative and qualitative differences among special education programs in rural, regional, and metropolitan areas; Maine's support network for rural special educators; rural Child-Find services; Fetal Alcohol Syndrome and children at risk--a collaborative intervention approach; developing community resources to support rural gifted programs; college extension courses and field experiences; parent input for special education program development; training parents of developmentally delayed children; importance of rural behavioral disorder teacher competencies to teachers and faculty; adaptive physical education; training and employment of paraprofessional personnel; team building--a transdisciplinary approach; developing a low incidence preservice training program; using telecourses for continuing professional education; and identifying training needs for rural special educators. (DB)

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Proceedings of the Eighth Annual ACRES National Rural Special Education Conference

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alternative Futures for Rural Special Education

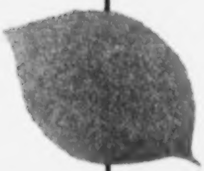
February 24-27, 1988
Doubletree • Monterey, California

sponsored by
ACRES—American Council on Rural Special Education

cosponsored by
San Jose State University • California State Department of Education
Monterey County Office of Education • San Benito County Office of Education

EC 211005

Eighth Annual ACRES National
Rural Special Education Conference



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Alternative Futures for Rural Special Education

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MANY THANKS TO THE

LOCAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

Joseph Roberts, *Chairman*

Kris Beall, *Publicity/Information*
George Clark and Susan Genesy, *Registration*
Carla Caballo, *Session Facilitation*
Tom Mooneyham, *Media Management*
Bob Hagan, *Hospitality*
Joseph Roberts, *Exhibits*
Ardis Loonie, *Special Events*
Rosemary Palmer, William Milgate, Carolyn Padgett, and Sally Chidester, *Auction*

ABSTRACTS AND COMPLETE PAPERS

The abstracts and complete presentation papers for all conference sessions are available for review at the Registration/Information Center. Reviewing session papers can assist in selecting conference presentations most suited to your areas of interest and expertise.

1987/88 ACRES TASK FORCES/LEADERS

D. J. Olcott, *Coordinator*

Adapted Physical Education and Therapeutic Recreation
Charlie Daniel, *Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green*

At-Risk Populations
Joseph Roberts, *San Jose State University, California*

Cross-Cultural
Linda Reetz, *University of South Dakota, Vermillion*

Early Childhood
Paulie Mills/Pam Tazioli, *University of Washington, Seattle*

Family/Professional Relationships
Pat Burns, *Kyrene School District, Chandler, Arizona*

Health and Related Services
Lela Perkins, *Western Line School District, Hollandale, Mississippi;*
Sandra Stuart-Siddall, *California State University, Chico*

Local Education Agency Program Development
Robert Jenkins, *Western Line School District, Hollandale, Mississippi;*
Bernard Hannon, *Cooperative School Services, Rensselaer, Indiana*

Low-Incidence Handicapping Condition
Colleen Capper, *Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee*

Personnel Recruitment and Retention
Pete Biaggio, *Nebraska Department of Education, Lincoln*

Policy Development
Terry Berkeley, *University of Maine, Farmington*; Sandra Silver, *Bemidji State University, Minnesota*

Preservice Training
Barbara Reeves, *Ohio University, Athens*; June Canty-Lemke, *University of Redlands, California;*
Dee Duncan, University of Portland, Oregon

Professional Development
Dick Hentschel, *CESA #3, Fennimore, Wisconsin*; Debra Veit, *University of Alaska, Anchorage*

Publications
Amy Allen, *Ohio University, Athens*

Research
Stan Knox, *St. Cloud State University, Minnesota*

Technology
Shirley Coale, *University of Oregon, Eugene*

Transition
Barb Elliott, *Educational Service Unit #9, Hastings, Nebraska*

ACRES SCHOLARSHIP AWARDS

Brenda S. Chamberlain
Ohio University
Brenda Chamberlain is completing a doctoral program in rehabilitation counseling, special education, and business administration. Ms. Chamberlain--who grew up in rural Ohio--pursues her goals of implementing positive and constructive change in rural Appalachian schools with the directed energy of a leader.

Cathy Ogden
New Mexico State University
Cathy Ogden's dedication to special education in the rural setting extends back to the sixth grade, when she volunteered as a peer tutor in a rural special education classroom. Her education and career goals began then, and have not wavered. Cathy will complete her bachelors degree with an emphasis on a broad-based general special education curriculum, and pursue a graduate degree in a low incidence exceptionality field.

EXEMPLARY RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM AWARDS

Preservice/Inservice Training
Maine's Collegial Support Network for Rural Special Educators, Augusta, Maine
The objective of the Network--initiated in the fall of 1986--is to diminish the high turnover of special education teachers in Maine's rural schools. An overview of this statewide regionalized network will be presented, including sample team-building and problem-solving activities.

Contact: Margaret Arbuckle, *Director, Maine's Comprehensive System of Personnel Development, Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services, State House Bldg. #23, Augusta, ME 04333, 207/289-5971*

Cross-Cultural Services
Ponemah Elementary School, Ponemah, Minnesota
The goals of the Ponemah Elementary School are to improve the climate of the school and to increase the comfort level of students and their parents in the school setting. The school provides programs that meet the children's social and academic needs and prepares them for life outside their own cultural setting with appropriate knowledge and skills even while celebrating their own cultural uniqueness.

Contact: Roger L. Schmidt, *Principal, Ponemah Elementary School Program, Ponemah, MN 56666, 218/554-7337*

Least Restrictive Environment
Southwestern Montana Educational Cooperative--Program for the Emotionally Disturbed, Deer Lodge, Montana
The program goals are to appropriately identify emotionally disturbed students; to provide services to emotionally disturbed students in their home districts; and to provide behavior services to other handicapped students who demonstrate a behavioral disorder or emotional disorder.

Contact: Flori McCurdy, *Director, Southwestern Montana Educational Cooperative Program for the Emotionally Disturbed, P.O. Box 48, Deer Lodge, MT 59722, 406/683-7635*

EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARDS (continued)

Infant and Early Childhood Intervention
Greenwood School District #52--Preschool Program for Handicapped Children, Ninety Six, South Carolina
School District #52 began an early intervention program for children ages 3-5 long before the implementation of PL 99-457. Program goals and components illustrate a commitment to early intervention and emphasize systematic educational services to children and active parent involvement.

Contact: Sandra Calliham, *Director of Federal Programs, Greenwood School District #52 "Preschool Program for Handicapped Children," 119 South Cambridge Street, Ninety Six, SC 29666, 803/543-4054*

Vocational Training and Transition
Southlake Special Services--Transition Program for Handicapped Youth, St. Maries, Idaho
Southlake Special Services is a cooperative that has served the largest and most diverse area in Idaho for 12 years. The goal of the program is to provide optimal, individualized transition services to all handicapped students. Transition plans are implemented as early as kindergarten for some students.

Contact: Dave Cox, *Director, Southlake Special Services "Transition Program for Handicapped Youth," 240 South 11th Street, St. Maries, ID 83861, 208/245-2508*

Interagency Collaboration (two award winners)
Rural Child-Find Services Program, Ruidoso, New Mexico
This isolated community creates a festive occasion out of a job that needs to be done. Screening infants through 5-year-olds for a variety of services is conducted in one locale; the job is completed efficiently, and in the tone of a celebration. Rural parents, who might otherwise be skeptical of outside expertise, are willing to participate.

Contact: Sandy Gladden, *Director, Rural Child Find Services Program, Regional Center Cooperative IX, P.O. Drawer F, Ruidoso, NM 88345, 505/258-3650*

Arlington Interagency Project, Arlington, Washington
This project works under the belief that for the program to be successful, the interagency groups must come to the families. The combined efforts of the agencies have helped families focus on their own strengths and develop plans of action for themselves. The participating organizations have benefited by learning to communicate with each other, dissolving the notion that each is an island of service delivery.

Contact: Diane McCutchen, *Project Coordinator, Arlington Interagency Project, Arlington School District, 600 East First Street, Arlington, WA 98223, 206/435-2156*

Tuesday

1:00 - 6:00 pm TOURS *(meet at ACRES registration - DeAnza Foyer)*

3:00 - 7:00 pm REGISTRATION/INFORMATION - *DeAnza Foyer*

5:30 - 7:00 pm TASK FORCE LEADERS MEETING - *Suite 217*

7:00 - 8:30 pm RECEPTION HONORING NEW ACRES MEMBERS - *Suite 117*

8:30 - 8:45 pm VIDEO: ACRES: "A Good Thing Growing" - *Cottonwood II*

8:30 -11:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suite 217 (Nonsmoking), Suite 117 (Smoking)*

Wednesday

7:30 am - 5:00 pm REGISTRATION/INFORMATION - *DeAnza Foyer*

8:30 -10:00 am PLENARY SESSION - *DeAnza II & III*

Welcome

Doris Helge, *Executive Director of ACRES*, and Patrick Campbell, *Director of Special Education, California State Dept. of Education*

Rural Is Where the Heart Is

Phyllis Kaplan, *Professor, California State University at Hayward*

Raffle

10:00 - 10:20 am BREAK - *DeAnza Foyer*

10:20 - 11:20 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Work Experience Service Delivery in Small Communities in Northeast Iowa

Dirk A. Wiener, Michael Erickson, *Keystone Area Education Agency, Iowa*

Work experience services for secondary handicapped students are systematic and comprehensive in Northeast Iowa. Students routinely receive both paying and non-paying community vocational experiences.

Redwood II

Meeting the Needs of Rural Visually Impaired Children in the Northwest

James Bickford, *Portland State University, Oregon*

Portland State University breaks the traditional teacher training model to prepare teachers of the visually handicapped for rural populations of the Northwest.

Cottonwood II

Researching Rural Special Education in Scandinavia

Kari Tuunainen, Niila Outakoski, *University of Joensuu, Finland*

Rural special education in Scandinavia, especially in sparsely populated areas.

Redwood I

University Partnerships with Early Intervention Programs in Rural Settings

Dale Lawver, *Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana*; Barbara Russell, *Morehead State University, Morehead, Kentucky*

Description of model university and rural early intervention system to provide effective staff training and curriculum development activities.

Cottonwood I

10:20 - 11:20 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Needs-Based Approach for Comprehensive Family Services

Carolyn Cooper, *Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois*

Presentation of a model currently being implemented by higher education and direct service professionals to provide comprehensive individualized services for rural families.

Ironwood I

Transdisciplinary Team Assessment and Programming for Learners with Severe Handicaps

Carol Werdin, *Minnesota University Affiliated Program, Minneapolis*; Andy Mensing, *SW-WC ECSU, Marshall, Minnesota*

Transdisciplinary teams of educators and related service providers have been conducting functional "arena" assessments and program planning for learners with severe handicaps in rural Minnesota. The techniques used, project results, and tips for replicating this exciting new teaming approach will be presented at this session.

Ironwood II

Two-Way Interactive TV Instruction: Comparative Studies of Instructional Effectiveness in Three Rural/Remote Special Education Courses

M. Winston Egan, *University of Utah, Salt Lake City*

This paper addresses the steps that were taken to significantly improve the instructional effectiveness of courses delivered to rural/remote personnel through two-way interactive television.

Colton I

11:20 am - 1:00 pm WORKING LUNCHEON FOR TASK FORCES - *De Anza II & III*

1:00 - 2:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

(continued, next page)

Considerations for Educators Working with Southeast Asian Children and Their Families

Robert D. Morrow, Hugh J. McBride, *University of the Pacific, Stockton, California*

This acquaints rural educators with the problems of working with Southeast Asian children and their families.

Redwood I

Using Peer Coaching, Cooperative Learning and Effective Instruction Strategies to Promote Social Integration and Mainstreaming of Middle School and Junior High Exceptional Students

JoAnne Putnam, Kathryn Markovchick, Marcia Fogg, *University of Maine at Farmington*

This presentation describes a staff development project that trains regular and special educators in the implementation of techniques for incorporating students with special needs into regular classes.

Cottonwood II

State, County, and Local Collaboration: Partners in Serving Special Needs Students

Karen Newman, *Cochise County School, Bisbee, Arizona*

Outlining the financial sources, focus of organizational structure, examples of administrative procedures and services, and personal aspects of administrative services for small/isolated school districts.

Colton II

Mainstreaming the Resource Specialist

Carol Zvolensky, Chris Speake, *Mendocino Unified Schools, Mendocino, California*

This session describes the collaborative/consultant model of special education as an alternative to current practices of "pull-out" programs; includes strategies and techniques.

Redwood II

1:00 - 2:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Starter Manual for the New Jack-of-All-Trades Parent/Infant Home Visitor
Mary Carr, Jo Nelson, *University of Washington, Seattle*

This session will involve participants in working through a starter manual designed to give new interventionist guidelines for organizing and implementing services.

Ironwood I

Transition Team Building: In School and Beyond
Janet Sherman, *Laramie County School District, Cheyenne, Wyoming*; Carolyn McIntyre, *Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, State of Wyoming*

This session describes procedures used to develop the Career Development Plan with parent/community/DVR/school teams, including work experience and follow-up case management.

Ironwood II

The Challenge: Preparing Quality Special Educators for Rural Students with Severe Handicaps
Joan Sebastian, *University of Utah, Salt Lake City*

The purpose of this session is to describe the implementation and evaluation of a model field-based preservice certification program designed to prepare teachers in rural school districts to work with students with moderate and severe handicaps.

Colton I

2:05 - 3:05 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Mainstreaming the Hearing Impaired in a Rural Public School Setting
Helen Kemp Gay, *East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina*

This videotape/slide presentation demonstrates successful mainstreaming services for hearing impaired students in a rural setting.

Colton I

Emergency Certification: A Viable Solution to the Shortage of Special Educators?
Karen Tateyama, *California State University, Stanislaus*

The focus of the presentation is on the evaluation of emergency certification as a solution to the shortage of special educators in the rural school districts of California.

Colton II

Preparation of Personnel for Minority Handicapped Children in Rural Settings
Carol Foss, *Bemidji State University, Minnesota*; Patti Haasch, *Alternative Learning Center, Cass Lake, Minnesota*

The purpose of this presentation is to outline the Special Education: Early Childhood Cross-Cultural Internship/Education Project at Bemidji State University, Bemidji, Minnesota.

Redwood II

Cooperative Agreements for Special Programs: Two Models That Work!
June Lemke, *University of Redlands, California*

A discussion of two models for cooperative school districts/university agreements to provide special programs to students and teacher education students.

Redwood I

2:05 - 3:05 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Taking the Mystery Out of Transition: Comprehensive Vocational Assessment, Vocational Planning, and Transition Delivery for Rural Districts

Edward O'Leary, Jim Kline, Lee Sullivan, *Heartland Area Education Agency, Newton, Iowa*

This session will focus on a simplified, direct, practical approach for career/vocational assessment, planning, and transition plan development and implementation.

Ironwood I

New Roles for Special Education in the Area of Moderate/Severe Needs

Maria Bove, *College of St. Joseph, Rutland, Vermont*; Mary McNeil, *University of Vermont, Burlington*

New role for special education teachers in integrating learners with moderate/severe handicaps in the regular classroom by immersion into the rural culture and by modifying and adapting the existing curricular units from the elementary curriculum.

Cottonwood II

Serving an At-Risk Population in a Rural Area

Nancy Wonderling, Beth Lee, *Rehabilitation Center, Allegany, New York*

Description of program for at-risk children and families in a rural area, by a private-not-for-profit corporation. Implementation, barriers encountered, progress and future plans will be discussed.

Ironwood II

3:05 - 3:25 pm BREAK - *3rd Floor Foyer*

3:25 - 4:25 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

(continued, next page)

Developing and Enriching Motor Skills Through Games

Barbara Sher, *Private Practice, Occupational Therapy, Whitethorn, California*

A participatory workshop for learning a variety of games that increase motor skills and use simple, easily found or made equipment. Types of classroom behavior that are indicative of inadequate motor development will also be discussed.

Colton II

Imposed Curricular Agenda for American Indian Students in Their Native Land

Larry Foreman, Russell Dobson, Judith Dobson, *Oklahoma State University, Stillwater*

World views encompassing beliefs and values have conflicted in curricular agenda imposed upon American Indians for centuries. This session discusses these conflicts and their possible outcomes.

Colton I

Innovative Ways to Meet Training Needs of Rural Special Educators

Jeronimo Dominguez, Rupert Trujillo, *University of New Mexico, Albuquerque*

This presentation will discuss two models used by the University of New Mexico Division of Continuing Education to meet special educators' training needs in rural areas.

Cottonwood II

Program for College-Age Learning Disabled: A Cooperative Model

Margaret Turner, *Davis & Elkins College, Elkins, West Virginia*

Presents techniques for operating a cooperative program for college-age LD students in a small, rural, four-year liberal arts college: problems and possibilities.

Redwood II

3:25 - 4:25 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Planning for Successful Parent-Professional Transition Training Programs

Susan Pellegrini, Marlene Dick, Jeri Traub, Lois Moulin, *San Jose State University, California*

Strategies and recommendations for planning, organizing, and implementing parent-professional collaborative training for transition programs will be presented. Results of a national survey and a training manual will be available.

Ironwood I

Transition Planning Through Interagency Collaboration

Ruth Kass, *Arizona DES/DDD, Phoenix, Arizona*

The purpose of this session is to present a cooperative planning model that can facilitate the transition of students with disabilities from school to the workplace.

Ironwood II

Communication Links: Linking School, Parent, Business, Community

Durlynn Anema, *University of the Pacific, Stockton, California*

This workshop examines proven communication methods to deal with school/community relations, because communicating rural special education's message is vital to its success with parents and business.

Redwood I

4:30 - 5:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

How to Establish an Effective Special Education Program

Sandra Silver, *Bemidji State University, Minnesota*

Through a series of activities, participants will gain the skills and knowledge needed to develop an effective rural special education program.

Colton II

Improving Special Education Services in Rural Kansas

Kathleen H. McGinley, *University of Kansas, Lawrence*

This presentation discusses project components, their relationship to effective service delivery, results of project evaluations, and the importance of cooperative relationships fostered through the project.

Cottonwood II

Analysis of Seven Behavioral Domains of Independent Living

Delwyn L. Harnisch, Adrian T. Fisher, Chuck Carroll, *University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign*

Seven-part definition of independent living was factor analyzed. Scales derived allowed differentiation between: 1) handicapped groups 2) specific needs and 3) urbanicity.

Redwood I

Proposals for Extended Teacher Education

David Yellin, Kay Bull, Michael Warner, Ray Sanders, *Oklahoma State University, Stillwater*

Analysis of rural/urban attitudinal differences between teachers and teacher educators as they relate to the proposal for extended (five-year) teacher education programs.

Redwood II

4:30 - 5:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Quantitative and Qualitative Differences Among Special Education Programs in Rural, Regional, and Metropolitan Areas in a Southeastern State

John C. Richardson, *Clemson University, South Carolina*

Differences between rural and nonrural settings will be examined for indicants which reduce stress/frustration in special educators, and increase probability of retention and productivity.

Ironwood I

Three-Year Follow-Up Study of Resource Specialist Teachers in Northeastern California

Lily Roberts, *California State University, Chico*

Presentation of research findings and discussion of policy issues regarding the role of resource specialist teachers in northeastern California, and their impact on least restrictive environment policy.

Ironwood II

Challenges for Rural Teachers: Interfacing Competencies in Early Childhood Education with PL 99-457

Georgine Steinmiller, David Bell, *Henderson State University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas*

This working session will identify needed teacher competencies that will fit into the matrix for both NAEYC guidelines and the requirements of PL 99-457.

Colton I

5:00 - 6:30 pm RSEQ EDITORIAL BOARD MEETING - *Suite 217*

5:00 - 7:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suite 117*

7:00 - 11:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suite 217 (Nonsmoking), Suite 117 (Smoking)*

Thursday

6:30 - 7:30 am FUN RUN *(meet in De Anza Foyer)*

7:30 am - 5:00 pm REGISTRATION/INFORMATION - *De Anza Foyer*

8:00 am - 5:00 pm EXHIBIT AREA OPEN - *I. Layton's*

8:30 - 10:00 am PLENARY SESSION - *DeAnza I & II*

Presentation of Exemplary Rural Special Education Program Awards

(Recipients will present brief descriptions of their programs)

Raffle

10:00 - 10:20 am BREAK/EXHIBITS - *I. Layton's*

10:20 - 11:20 am CONCURRENT PRESENTATIONS BY EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARD WINNERS

Preservice/Inservice Training

Maine's Support Network for Rural Special Educators

Margaret Arbuckle, Kathryn Markovchick, Jake Clockedile, Betty Dagdigian, *Maine's Comprehensive System of Personnel Development, State Department of Education, Augusta, Maine*
Cottonwood I

Cross-Cultural Services

Ponemah Elementary School Program

Roger Schmidt, *Ponemah Elementary School, Ponemah, Minnesota;* Delores Cloud, *Red Lake, Minnesota*
Cottonwood II

Least Restrictive Environment

Program for the Emotionally Disturbed

Flori McCurdy, *Southwestern Montana Educational Cooperative, Deer Lodge, Montana*
Redwood I

Infant and Early Childhood Intervention

Preschool Program for Handicapped Children

Sandra Calliham, *Greenwood School District #52, Ninety Six, South Carolina*
Redwood II

Vocational Training and Transition

Transition Program for Handicapped Youth

Cathi Pierce, Virginia Beebe, *Southlake Special Services, St. Maries, Idaho*
Ironwood I

Interagency Collaboration (two award winners)

Rural Child-Find Services Program

Sandy Gladden,Likis Bowden, Shirley Cliff, *Regional Center Cooperative IX, Ruidoso, New Mexico*
Bonsai I

Arlington Interagency Project

Diane McCutchen, Floyd Ellingson, *Arlington School District, Arlington, Washington*
Bonsai II

11:20 am - 1:00 pm WORKING LUNCHEON FOR TASK FORCES - *De Anza I & II*

1:00 - 2:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SECACNOC-Special Education Community Advisory Committee Network of California

Lea Cagle, Susan Pagni, *SECACNOC, Red Bluff, California*

Information of interest to parents on resources, critical issues updates, and hints for helping their handicapped children.

Cottonwood I

1:00 - 2:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Addressing Critical Personnel Shortages in Early Childhood Special Education in a Highly Rural State

A. Sandy Parsons, Dean K. McIntosh, *University of South Carolina, Columbia*

This workshop will provide information on innovative models for delivery of both preservice and inservice training in Early Childhood Special Education for rural states.

Cottonwood II

Educational Influences on Severely Handicapped Students in Rural Schools

Richard L. Swanby, *Trenton State College, Hillwood Lakes, Trenton, New Jersey*

The purpose of this presentation is to present educational alternatives for rural severely handicapped students. The alternatives are based on research which compared available placement, related services, and teacher qualifications in rural school districts.

Redwood I

FAS and Children At-Risk: A Collaborative Approach to Intervention

Nancy Radoff, Jane McCarty, *Stanislaus County Dept. of Education, Modesto, California*

The presentation will address identification and intervention with children at risk for developmental delay due to prenatal exposure to alcohol and/or substance abuse.

Redwood II

Self-Advocacy for Students in Transition

Christine Hunter, Kris Torma, *PACER, Minneapolis, Minnesota*

This session will provide participants with methods and strategies for developing self-advocacy skills in high school students with disabilities.

Bonsai II

Like An Ordinary Brother: The Cares of Siblings

Paulie Mills, *University of Washington, Seattle*

The cares and concerns of siblings of individuals with handicaps need to be addressed by parents and professionals. Strategies will be presented.

Ironwood II

Kentucky's Special/Vocational Liaison Programs

Betty M. Hughes, *Kentucky Dept. of Education, Frankfort*

Special/vocational liaison programs in Kentucky are designed to provide instruction, guidance, and supportive services to handicapped students enrolled in regular vocational programs. Individual programs on the local level will be selected from rural areas to spotlight.

Bonsai I

2:05 - 3:05 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

(continued next page)

Developing Community Resources to Support Rural Gifted Programs

Kay Bull, *Oklahoma State University, Stillwater*

Finding free or inexpensive resources, developing and supporting a resource network, selling the community and institutionalizing a gifted program in the school.

Cottonwood I

2:05 - 3:05 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Local Solutions to Local Problems: Oregon's Move to Grass-Roots Control

Jane Willems, William Moore, *Teaching Research, Monmouth, Oregon*

This session will present information that can be used to increase the effectiveness of interagency collaboration at the local level. The format will consist of lecture, discussion, and participant action planning. Participants will learn keys to successful collaboration.

Cottonwood II

Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education

Winnie Dunn, Brenda Rowley Gray, *University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City*

Rural service delivery in schools presents unique challenges for related service personnel. This session will present various characteristics and successful delivery patterns in rural settings.

Redwood II

Meeting Transition Needs of Mildly Handicapped in Rural Areas: Personnel and Program Development

Donald Link, *University of Utah, Salt Lake City*; Kay Boeck, *Park City School District, Utah*

This session will offer secondary teachers and teacher educators useful practices for developing, implementing, and managing transition programs for mildly handicapped students in rural areas.

Bonsai II

Using Database Management Systems to Evaluate Program Effectiveness in Small School Districts

Tony Hoffman, *San Lorenzo Valley Unified School District, Felton, California*

This paper presents a rationale and strategy for creating databases for special education program evaluation using new microcomputers and database management systems.

Redwood I

College Extension Courses and Field Experiences

Helen Beneke, *Arrowhead Area Education Agency, Pocahontas, Iowa*

Teacher training can be enhanced by bringing the college to the local territory. Area resource personnel and actual classrooms serve as logical vehicles for teaching the potential special educator what life is about in the "Special Lane" of education.

Ironwood II

State-of-the-Art Communications for the Nonverbal Motor Impaired

Denise Waterman, *ESAM Learning Systems, Inc., Yachats, Oregon*

A computer-based communication system for nonverbal persons with limited motor skills will be demonstrated. There will also be an 8-minute videotape which shows the system being used by children and gives a brief history of the company.

Bonsai I

3:05 - 3:25 pm BREAK/EXHIBITS - *I. Layton's & 3rd Floor Foyer*

3:25 - 4:25 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Social Participation Skills in Rural Schools

Dean K. McIntosh, Gail Raymond, *University of South Carolina, Columbia*

Many rural special and regular education students lack social participation skills for success in school. Both diagnosis and remediation of such skills will be discussed.

Cottonwood II

3:25 - 4:25 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Project I-AM: An Initiative-Action Model

Nancy Lavelle, *Almansor Education Center, Alhambra, California*

Project I-AM is a practical approach for working in partnership with at-risk youth to re-engage them in school through self-esteem, learning, and effective action.

Cottonwood I

Two Effective Rural Programs

Larry Lowrance, Sam Hite, Judy Daugherty, *Southeast Missouri State University, Cape Girardeau*

Successful models for training adolescents and adults who experience handicaps for competitive employment levels will be presented, along with information on funding and management.

Redwood I

Beyond the IEP: Seeking Parent Input for Special Education Program Development

Craig Howley, *Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Charleston, West Virginia*

This session will demonstrate a method of community needs assessment to elicit information that can be used to help guide special education program development in rural areas.

Bonsai II

Preparing Rural Early Childhood Special Educators

Adelle Clewley Park, Marcy Coon, *Vermont College of Norwich University, Montpelier*

Description of procedures used in an early childhood special education teacher preparation program to prepare educators to work, and stay, in rural areas.

Redwood II

R.I.D.E. (Responding to Individual Differences in Education)

Vern Barkell, *Yellowstone-West/Carbon County Special Services Co-op, Laurel, Montana*

This is an overview of an inservice training session, given to regular educators, designed to help them work more effectively with typical students before referring to special education services.

Ironwood II

Disabilities Awareness Programs: Training and Technology for Rural Areas

Donald Kairott, *California Disabilities Awareness Program, Sacramento*

Overviews of five disabilities awareness projects mandated by AB2841 (Felando). Videos, rural access to training via satellite, and local adoption criteria are presented.

Bonsai I

4:30 - 5:30 pm TASK FORCE LEADERS MEETING - *Ironwood I*

4:30 - 5:30 pm WINE AND CHEESE WITH EXHIBITORS - *I. Layton's*

5:30 - 7:00 pm ACRES SCHOLARSHIP AUCTION - *De Anza Ballroom*

(All proceeds will be used to provide scholarships to rural special educators. The auction will also feature raffle items and special awards. Don't miss this exciting event.)

7:00 - 11:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suite 217 (Nonsmoking), Suite 117 (Smoking)*

Friday

7:30 am - 5:00 pm REGISTRATION/INFORMATION - *De Anza Foyer*

8:00 am- 3:00 pm EXHIBIT AREA OPEN - *I. Layton's*

8:00 - 8:30 am REGISTRATION/WELCOME TO TEACHER INSTITUTE - *De Anza I & II*
Gilbert Guerin and Joseph Roberts

8:30 am - Noon TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

Building Positive Self-Esteem

Joseph Roberts, *San Jose State University, California*; Lorentina Carroll, *Lodi Unified Schools, Lodi, California*

Over 50 classroom strategies to enhance positive self-esteem will be presented in a "hands on" workshop approach.

De Anza III

Training Parents of Developmentally Delayed Children in Rural Areas

Russell Hedge, Bill Johnson, *Kansas University Affiliated Program, Parsons, Kansas*

Why, what, and how to train a rural, heterogeneous group of parents to be the developmentally delayed child's teacher and program manager.

Cottonwood I & II

8:30 am - Noon SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSIONS

Issues Facing State Departments of Education

Pete Biaggio, *Nebraska Department of Education*; Myra Howe, *Alaska Department of Education*

This session allows personnel to share concerns and propose solutions to current issues facing state education agencies. Personnel development, surrogate parent procedures, federal child count, funding, rule/regulation development, federal on-site visitations, state monitoring of local school districts, and due process are some of the areas to be discussed.

De Anza I & II

A Critical Look at Review Criteria and the Submission of Applications for OSERS--Division of Personnel Preparation Grants

Norman Howe, *U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, Washington, D.C.*

This session will discuss DPP grant review criteria and field questions on OSERS regulations for grant submission.

Bonsai I & II

9:00 - 10:20 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Project K.I.T. (Kids in Transition)

Mary Schertz, Pam Goff, Margie Jensen, *Northern Trails Area Education Agency, Clear Lake, Iowa*

Project K.I.T. is a formalized planning process for the transition of handicapped preschoolers from one environment to the next.

Ironwood I & II

Conceptual Model for Assessing Levels of Interpersonal Skills

Richard Ashcroft, *Mendocino County Court Schools, Ukiah, California*

Describes test of author's model for intentionally programming (contextualized) social interaction within behavior management systems which frequently do not value such interaction.

Redwood I & II

10:20 - 10:40 am BREAK/EXHIBITS - *I. Layton's*

18

Friday

10:40 - Noon CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Alternative Curriculum (and) Intervention (for) Success: ACIS

Marcia T. Davies, *County Schools, Currituck, North Carolina*

Intervention strategies to ease the transition of handicapped at-risk students from the school setting to the adult world.

Redwood I & II

Links to Learning: Telecommunications and Audioconferencing

Armand Seguin, *University of Alaska, Juneau*; Carole Veir, *University of Texas at Austin*

The presentation will include a discussion and demonstration of methods to link teachers with learning through using computers and audioconferencing. The concepts are suitable for homebound students.

Ironwood I & II

Noon - 1:00 pm LUNCH (on your own)

Noon - 5:00 pm EDUCATIONAL TOUR *(meet at ACRES registration - De Anza Foyer)*

1:00 - 5:00 pm TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

Tactics, Tricks and Turmoil in the World of Transition

Julie Green, *Coeur d'Alene School District, Idaho*

Transition techniques that work: focus will center on establishing community-based instruction, special education-special needs partnerships, and community participation.

Bonsai II

Cooperative Learning and Computers in the Rural Classroom

Mary Male, *San Jose State University, California*

Awareness and practice in applying cooperative learning strategies to the use of the computer in the classroom.

Bonsai III

1:00 - 4:00 pm SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSIONS

Crackerbarrel Discussion

Response to PL 99-457, Titles I & II: Issues Concerning Families Residing in Rural and Remote Areas of the U.S.

Susan Istre, *Oklahoma State Department of Health*; Kathy Odle, *ACCH Parent Consultant, New Site, Mississippi*; Pam Tazioli and Paulie Mills, *University of Washington*; Deb Rice Hansen, *Dept. of Education, Des Moines, Iowa*; Pam Potocik, *Little Tennessee Valley Educational Co-op, Lenoir City*; Lisa Rogers, *Child Development Resources, Lightfoot, Virginia*; Armena Taylor, *University of Wyoming, Laramie*; P. J. Powers, *University of Montana, Missoula*

The issues of council representation, parent involvement and family service models, service transition, training, and Least Restrictive Environment will be presented and discussed by several teams of people from across the United States. Audience participation is encouraged.

Cottonwood I & II

At-Risk Forum

Joanne Femrite, Jim Parks, *University of Arizona, Tucson*; Colleen Capper, *Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee*; Kay Bull, *Oklahoma State University, Stillwater*; Helen Mitchell, Glendon Casto, Marlene Dee, *Utah State University, Logan*; D. J. Olcott, *ACRES, Bellingham, Washington*; Kirk Scheufele, *Monterey Suicide Prevention Center*

This session will focus on selected at-risk conditions/issues that are affecting the successful development of rural school-age populations. Topics will include alcohol and drug addiction as handicapping conditions, at-risk gifted children, education for adolescent mothers, adolescent suicide, and AIDS.

Bonsai I

1:00 - 1:30 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Importance of Rural Behavioral Disorder Teacher Competencies to Teachers and Faculty

Wilfred Wienke, Bonnie Joyce, *West Virginia University, Morgantown*

Process for validating rural behavior disorder competencies by soliciting judgments on the importance of the competencies from teachers and faculty members in West Virginia.

Ironwood I & II

Meeting Community Needs Through Elementary Enrichment

Robert Steinmiller, *Ouachita Baptist University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas*; Georgine Steinmiller, *Henderson State University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas*

A summer elementary enrichment program to meet the needs of bright children in our rural communities.

Redwood I & II

1:35 - 2:35 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Combined Sessions-Adaptive Physical Education

Rural Preservice Graduate and Undergraduate Teacher Training in Adapted Physical Education

Michael Churton, *Appalachian State University, Boone, North Carolina*; P. J. Powers, *University of Montana, Missoula*

Presentation will focus on undergraduate and graduate teacher training in adapted physical education in Appalachia. Montana rural training models will also be discussed.

Ironwood I & II

Competencies for Adaptive Physical Educators: Implications for Rural Special Educators

Stephen D. Dempsey, *University of Nevada, Las Vegas*

The presentation will discuss recent research regarding competencies for adaptive physical educators. Implications for rural special educators will be highlighted.

Ironwood I & II

What Is a Rural Specialist?

Debra Veit, Marilyn Kay Johnson, *University of Alaska, Anchorage*

Learn about a unique training program that combines special education, counseling, and substance abuse issues to help teachers become rural specialists.

Redwood I & II

2:35 - 2:55 pm BREAK/EXHIBITS - *I. Layton's & 3rd Floor Foyer*

2:55 - 3:55 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Alternative Homework for Mildly Handicapped Elementary Students: Try Gaming!

Linda Reetz, Mary Cerny, *University of South Dakota, Vermillion*, Kay Seager, *Pierre Indian Learning Center, South Dakota*

This make-and-take workshop will present alternative homework for review and practice of basic skills.

Ironwood I & II

Creative Interagency Projects in Rural Florida: Meeting the Educational Needs of the Future

Rebecca Pruett, *Gadsden County School Board, Quincy, Florida*; Mary Ann Brost, Janice Kelley, *FDLRS Gateway Center, Florida*; Pat Hollis, *Bureau of Education for Exceptional Students, Florida*

Interagency councils can provide an effective strategy for rural school districts in implementation of PL 99-457 and development of supported employment transition programs.

Redwood I & II

Friday

4:00 - 5:00 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Training and Employment of Paraprofessional Personnel

Anna Lou Pickett, *City University of New York, New York*

The purpose of this session is to provide administrators, policy makers, and teacher educators with information about the changing roles of paraprofessionals in the instructional process.

Cottonwood I & II

Referral, Intervention, and Instruction for Culturally and Linguistically Different Children Who May be Handicapped

Catherine Collier, Rudy Garcia, *BUENO Center, University of Colorado, Boulder*

Research-based information on improving referral and placement, providing adequate instruction, and implementing collaborative intervention for culturally/linguistically different children with learning and behavior problems.

Ironwood I & II

Multidisciplinary Assessment of Preschool Special-Needs Children

Diane Ashton, *Sonoma County SELPA, Windsor, California*

This presentation will be an overview of curriculum-based developmental assessment techniques for preschool, high-risk, and special education children, including parent involvement and formulation of pertinent goals and objectives.

Redwood I & II

Assessment Model for Isolated Rural Districts

Dvenna Duncan, Mabel Brown, Ellyn Arwood, *University of Portland, Oregon*

The assessment of learning differences in a model specifically designed for isolated rural areas will be demonstrated, along with the use of videotape consultation.

Bonsai I

4:00 - 6:30pm ACRES ADVISORY BOARD MEETING - *Suite 217*

5:00 - 11:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suite 117*

7:00 - 8:30 pm LOCAL PLANNING COMMITTEE MEETING - *Suite 217*

Saturday

7:30 am - Noon REGISTRATION/INFORMATION - *De Anza Foyer*

8:00 - Noon TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

Team Building: A Transdisciplinary Approach

Amy E. Albers, *Westchester BOCES, Yorktown Heights, New York*

This workshop will train participants in the transdisciplinary team approach including staff training, team building assessment, and consultation.

Redwood I & II

Identifying and Programming for Preschool Gifted Students

Roberta Daniels, *Arkansas State University, State University, Arkansas*

Use of economical and available assessment instruments will demonstrate administration and scoring. The session will highlight advantages of tests for rural educators who lack resources and/or training.

Cottonwood I & II

8:00 am - Noon SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSION

Program and Project Evaluation--Designs and Instruments

Norman Howe, *U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, Washington, DC*; Stan Knox, *St. Cloud State University, Minnesota*

Recipients of OSERS Federal grants will share their evaluation designs and instruments used to evaluate their programs and projects.

De Anza I

8:00 - 9:25 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

4 SUCCESS: Eliminating Pull-Out Programs

Norlis C. McKay, Jeff Hurst, Connie Abel, *Show Low School District, Arizona*

4 SUCCESS is a multi-funded, multidisciplinary program that eliminates the need for LD and Chapter I pull-outs. The program creates positive change for students, families and educators.

Bonsai I

Exploration, Problem Solving, and Play: Using Children's Salient Responses in Infant Assessment and Intervention

Terry R. Berkeley, *University of Maine at Farmington*; Sheryl A. Parkhurst, *Consultant, Jacksonville, Florida*

This presentation will demonstrate an alternative model for assessment and intervention with at-risk and developmentally delayed young children. The new model is known as the salient responses approach to intervention. It can be used in the assessment of the developmental performance and the design of developmentally appropriate intervention strategies.

Bonsai II

Rural Model: Developing a Low Incidence Preservice Training Program

Bonnie Young, Bonnie Staebler, Meredith Brodsky, Patricia Brush, Maxine Kilcrease, Mickey Pardew, Dorothy Jean Yocom, Howard Smith, *Western Oregon State College, Monmouth*

This session will showcase the W.O.S.C. rural special education preservice training program for the rural consultant specialist with a focus on low-incidence populations. Printed modules will be distributed on: Recruitment; Selection; Low-Incidence Curriculum: Deaf-Blind; Autism; Motor-Impaired; and Rural Curriculum: Cultural Considerations, Community Resources, and Consultant Processes.

Bonsai III

9:30 - 10:00 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Finding and Keeping the Best: Recruitment and Retention of Rural Special Educators

Mary Cihak Jensen, Victoria Bernhardt, *California State University, Chico, California*

The purposes of this presentation are to demonstrate and recommend ways in which rural schools can upgrade the quality of potential special education teachers through better selection procedures and the use of incentives.

Bonsai I

Developing Practicum Supervision Skills in Colleague Teachers

Barbara Ludlow, *West Virginia University, Morgantown*; John Platt, *University of South Florida, Tampa*

A presentation of the needed skills and the process for skill development to effectively assist colleague teachers to supervise on-the-job practicum.

Bonsai II

9:30 - 10:00 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS (continued)

Collaborative Inservice Training Program Serving Three Rural Special Education Cooperatives

Walter Higbee, Patricia Fallbeck, *Black Hills State College, Spearfish, South Dakota*

The program demonstrates how to present inservice training to schools in sparsely settled areas by means of a unique cadre system.

Bonsai III

10:00 - 10:20 am BREAK - *DeAnza Foyer*

10:20 - 11:20 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Project LIFT: A Rural Family-Focused Early Intervention Model

Mary Anne Sampon, Andrea Alder, Jeanette Myers, *CESA #5, Portage, Wisconsin*

Discussion, demonstration, and dissemination of materials and processes of this rural model including videotaping families, case coordination, and switch technology for severely disabled/chronically ill infants.

Bonsai I

Interdisciplinary Team Training: Project BRIDGE Model for Facilitating Exemplary Services

Carol Kent, Janice Dady-Jordan, *Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan*

Interdisciplinary team training using the BRIDGE model will be presented as an approach to improving service delivery.

Bonsai II

Using Telecourses for Continuing Professional Education: Are They Effective?

Sharon E. Alexander, *University of Victoria, British Columbia, Canada*

This session will examine the role of video and print in providing special education university credit courses for teachers living in remote areas, thus equalizing access to education.

Bonsai III

11:25 - 11:55 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Interagency Collaboration Among Rural Special Education Programs: How Is It Done and Is It Working?

Ruth Fletcher, Jack T. Cole, *New Mexico State University, Las Cruces*

Researchers share results of a study of states' mechanisms for rural special education cooperative services including perceived strengths and weaknesses of representative models.

Bonsai III

Transitional and Follow-Along Services for Learning Disabled College Students

James Yanok, *Ohio University, Athens*

Developmental education programs provide remedial instruction for underprepared college students. Within this organizational framework exists a foundation for the formation of specialized services for the learning disabled.

Bonsai I

Identifying Training Needs for Rural Special Educators

Peggy L. Anderson, Glenn Morgan, Henry Reiff, *Southeastern Louisiana University, Hammond*

Results of a needs assessment procedure designed to identify training competencies for rural special education teachers. Implications for university curricula will be discussed.

Bonsai II

Noon - 1:00 pm LUNCH (on your own)

1:00 - 5:00 pm TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

Acupressure in the Rural Classroom

Jeanne St. John, *Santa Cruz County Office of Education, Capitola, California*

A hands-on introduction to Santa Cruz County's PRES Project, which uses the principles of acupressure in classrooms to facilitate learning, relaxation, and to reduce tension in students and staff.

Redwood I & II

Write for Power

J. E. Sparks, Toby Larson, *Language Arts Consultants, Los Angeles, California*

A 12-stage sequential, developmental writing program, K-12, that progresses by numerical power, incorporating transitions, form and literacy conventions, and 39 sentence patterns.

Cottonwood I & II

12:45 - ? pm TOURS *(meet in DeAnza Foyer at designated time)*

2:45 - 3:05 pm BREAK - *3rd Floor Foyer*

5:00 - 11:00 pm HOSPITALITY - *Suites 217 (Nonsmoking), 117 (Smoking)*

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WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24

10:20 - 11:20 AM

Presentation Paper

Delivery of Work Experience and On-The-Job Training Services to Special Education Students in Small Communities in Northeast Iowa.

for

The American Council on Rural Special Education
National Conference

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Monterey, California

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The Keystone Agency

The Keystone Area Education Agency (A.E.A.) is an intermediate agency which provides a variety of services to local school districts in Northeast Iowa. There are three separate divisions of the Keystone Agency:

1) **Media** - this division provides books, films, multi-media and a variety of other educational materials to all teachers and administrators upon request. Materials are delivered to the schools on a twice weekly basis.

2) **Educational Services** - This division provides personnel available to the local districts to assist with curriculum writing, staff development, computer programming, cooperative purchasing talented & gifted education and a variety of other services. This division acts upon the direction of the superintendents of the local districts.

3) **Special Education** - This division provides support personnel to the instructional special education programs operated by the local districts. Division disciplines include speech therapy, occupational therapy, physical therapy, special education consultation, school social work, preschool consultation, itinerant teachers, audiology, vision services, psychology and work experience services.

There are 26 local districts within the Keystone Agency, 25 of which are rural in nature. (The lone exception being the Dubuque Community School District) School populations in grades K-12 range from 300 to 2,000 with an average of less than 1,000 students enrolled in the district. Only three communities have populations of 5,000 people or more. Many of the school districts are consolidated entities with attendance centers located in very small communities of 1,000 or less. A few district high schools are located in the countryside.

Students Population

The Keystone Agency employs seven Work Experience Coordinators to assist with the High School career education programs within the 25 local districts. The Work Experience Coordinators operate on a referral basis with students enrolled in High School Special Education classes.

For the most part the target population are students enrolled in Special Classes with Integration. These students spend at least half of their school day within the special class. The Work Experience coordinators work with students of all disabilities including mental disabilities, learning disabilities and behavioral disorders. On occasion a referral will be received for hearing impaired, physically disabled or severely handicapped students.

Work Experience Coordinators also serve selected students in Resource Room programs, students whose time in special education programming is limited to two hours per school day. There are also four attendance centers for the moderately mentally handicapped which the Work Experience Coordinators also service. The majority of referrals do, however, come from the Special Classes with Integration servicing mildly handicapped students.

Initiation of Services

Work Experience Coordinators begin their involvement with students generally in the sophomore year of high school. There is, however, some limited involvement with students in grades 7 through 9. Job Placement and vocational assessment may be provided if a particular student is deemed in need of extraordinary services. This is generally seen as an option for preventing a student from dropping out of school. Other involvement at this level may include the coordination of job shadowing units, setting up tours of local businesses and industries and providing related career education instruction within the classroom. (Related instruction is discussed in greater detail later)

Vocational Assessment

Students in special education classes may be referred to the Work Experience Coordinator in their sophomore year for a comprehensive vocational assessment. The assessment covers seven areas including:

1) Academics
2) Learning style
3) Manual Dexterity and Physical Status
4) Interests
5) Aptitudes
6) Work habits and attitudes
7) Self-concept and personal values

Work Experience Coordinators are free to administer the instruments of their choice in each of these areas and may rely on previous reports contained in a student's file.

The result of the assessment will be a series of recommendations known as a vocational prescription. The prescription should include actions to be taken by student, teacher(s), parents and Work Experience Coordinators to ensure the proper career development of the student. The assessments and prescription are shared with the parents at a conference, separate from any regularly scheduled parent/teacher meeting. The Work Experience Coordinator will then discuss in some detail the nature of the school's Work/Study program. Parents are aware of this component in detail early on in their child's High School career and little explanation of the purposes and goals of later phases of the program is needed in subsequent years.

During the sophomore year, many students opt for some type of work placement. For the most part these placements are made in an On-campus setting. Students may work under the direction of a school employee, be it a teacher, custodian, secretary, bus mechanic or cook. Students are able to earn High School credit upon successful completion of a semester or year in this phase. These work sites may be on a paid or non-paid basis. On-campus sites allow the teacher and Work Experience Coordinator to monitor the work habits and total performance of the student at this critical time when the vocational maturity and work habits of the student are unproven.

In most school districts within the Keystone A.E.A. students in special education classes are encouraged (and in some districts required) to have classroom career education experiences in the Freshman and Sophomore years. These classes, along with the Work/Study component classes are outlined in the special class curriculum. The topics discussed in these career education classes are many and varied. These topics include job studies, job clusters, work habits and attitudes, job applications, interview and resumes along with the myriad of other subjects which need attention in order to prepare the student for successful experiences in the Exploratory and Preparatory phases, and also in later life.

The Exploratory Phase

After classroom experiences, vocational assessments, a parent conference and a possible On-Campus Work site, the student may elect to go on to the next phase of the Work/Study continuum, the Exploratory Phase. This phase is generally undertaken in the students Junior year and consists of the students first experiences with employers in the community. While school districts vary in their specific approach, it is universally understood that the student will attend multiple, non-paid work sites for some duration in this phase. Attending a number of sites allows the student a variety of experiences in a number of different jobs, with different employers, employer expectations, co-workers and job duties. This allows the student to make some firm decisions regarding their vocational interests and abilities. The multiple work site concept also allows the teacher and Work Experience Coordinator to observe the student in a variety of settings and help the student choose career options which are realistic and attainable.

As stated earlier, in the exploratory phase the work sites are attended on a non-paid basis. The incentive for the student to have successful experiences lies in the fact that High School credit is given for such experiences. The student also is required to perform some classroom duties as additional justification for earning credit. This usually includes completion of the Keystone A.E.A. Exploratory Site Log. The site log takes a pamphlet-type format and requires the student to:

1) Keep a record of their attendance at their work sites.
2) Complete activities specifically related to the requirements and duties of their work site
3) Complete activities of a more generic nature relating to the world of work.

Other assignments such as seeking employment for the summer months or participating in "mock" job interviews may also be required of the student.

Before new work sites are begun, an evaluation of the students performance will be secured by the Work Experience Coordinator from which a grade for the class can be determined.

At the conclusion of the Exploratory Phase, the Work Experience Coordinator shares with the teacher and student the Exploratory Site Analysis. This form lists the sites attended by the student during the semester or year and the duration of each. The Work Experience coordinator then writes a summary of the student's performance including work habits, attitudes, transition from site to site, job behavior initiative and productivity. This analysis is considered as further vocational assessment and should be coordinated with the standardized instruments performed earlier in an effort to make the vocational assessment endeavor an on-going process. Finally, the Work Experience Coordinator again makes recommendations for actions to be taken by all concerned parties for the improvement of the students chances of success in the next phase, the Preparatory Phase. These recommendations are as specific as possible, should be dated and in some way measurable.

The Preparatory Phase

Provided the student has had a successful exploratory experience and it is believed he could be successful with even greater responsibilities, the preparatory phase is initiated. In this phase a single site is used to train students job-specific skills on a payed (if possible) basis. Site duration may last for a semester or a year and in some instances beyond. Outside agencies such as JTPA, Vocational Rehabilitation, N.A.R.C. and the Iowa Youth Corps are called upon in many cases to provide training dollars as incentives to employers. If a paying position cannot be secured, non-paying positions will also be considered in the preparatory phase, especially if marketable job skills can be practiced on a daily basis.

This phase is unlike the exploratory phase because of it's emphasis on the acquisition of specific skills and it's single-site concept. It is like the exploratory phase in that the work site is brought into the classroom via the Keystone AEA Preparatory Site Log. The activities in this log center around daily living skills and are used by teachers to ensure that a student is proficient in these areas before graduation.

The Preparatory Site Analysis is used toward the end of this phase as a final assessment of the student's performance. As with the Exploratory Site Analysis a summary of the student's performance is given as are recommendations for the student's post school life i.e. work habits which need upgraded or references for community resource assistance. The Keystone AEA will soon be employing a Transition Coordinator whose primary responsibility will be to assist students, parents, and teachers in preparing for their post-school adjustment.

Policies and Procedures

Each school district has written policies and procedures for the operation of their school's Work/Study Program. These policies have generally been incorporated into the Special Class Curriculum. The major purpose of these guidelines is to assist in the coordination of the total program and to inform students of the expectations the school has regarding their performance in the Work/Study program.

The policies and procedures cover seven basic areas:

1) Initiation dates -- job placements are generally determined by the teacher, guidance counselor, work experience coordinator student, and parent along the lines previously discussed. Variations and exceptions are made when student needs warrant change.

2) Selection of work sites -- Included are statements regarding student performance at community work sites. Factors which determine where a student is placed generally include: a) aptitudes & skills of the student; b) interests of the student; c) availability of the job site; d) transportation to and from work sites.

3) Credits -- Some statement of the amount of credit given for each work/study class is also given in the policies and procedures. This statement is generally relative to the amount of time the student works. For example, a student working two class periods is likely to receive two credits if he/she completes a whole semester.

4) Transportation -- This can be a very touchy issue and each school district handles it differently. One factor which determines the school's role in transporting students is the location of the High School. Is it in a town of some size or is it located in the county? The Work Experience Coordinator many times must be creative and persistent in the effort to get the student to the work site, for many students, even in this day and age, do not have access to a vehicle.

5) Insurance -- The student's family is asked to provide health insurance protection for the student while on the job. Failing this, school insurance policies generally cover this type of school activity. Workman's compensation through the employer or job funding agency will provide coverage for students in the preparatory phase.

6) Disciplinary procedures -- Students need to be aware of the consequences should they be terminated from a job site or in some way do not meet the requirements of the Work/Study program.

7) Scheduling -- Again, these guidelines have been written by local school officials reflect policies which control their Work/Study program. Each district's rules vary according to the requirements of their High School Special Class with Integration curriculum.

Community Duties

The Work Experience Coordinator also has duties which promote the Work/Study program within the community. An almost everyday duty, is that of follow-up. After placing a student on a job site it is important to the progress of the student that the Work Experience Coordinator speak with the employer to determine how the student is performing. With the employers permission it is also prudent to observe the student on the job. In this way the student's shortcomings and abilities can be brought back into the classroom and make the work/study program truly a learning experience.

The Keystone AEA makes available to the Work Experience Coordinators and the local school district other materials which help promote the goals of the work/study program within the local community. A slide/tape presentation outlining the goals of the work/study program is used by Work Experience Coordinator to present to local civic and business groups. Brochures detailing the program are also made available to prospective employers. A semiannual newsletter is published which updates current trends and happenings in the Career Ed field. These are intended for teachers, administrators, parents and employers.

Classroom Duties

The Work Experience Coordinators also perform selected duties within the classroom, beside performing vocational assessments. This function is known as related instruction and is done with or under the supervision of the classroom teacher. Related instruction units can take a variety of forms. The teaching of units or career/vocational topics is often done by the Work Experience Coordinator. Topics may include the completion of job applications, preparation for job interviews and assisting students in the completion of site log activities. Work Experience Coordinators are also involved in the teaching of job behaviors via "skillstreaming" techniques. This provides direct instruction for the learning of pro-social behaviors which also are an important component in successful work experiences. The Work Experience Coordinator may also "substitute teach" should a teacher wish to do some follow-up on their students.

Other duties of the Work Experience Coordinator include the development or revision of career/vocational curriculum for the Special Classes with Integration. It is also expected that the Work Experience Coordinators keep themselves updated on the latest trends and educational materials in the field. They are expected to impart this knowledge to local teacher and administrators by holding periodic staff development meetings during regularly scheduled In-Service days or after the school day.

The Moderately Handicapped

Within the rural districts of Keystone AEA (excluding Dubuque) there are four centers for moderately handicapped high school students. Work Experience Coordinators also service these programs by providing job placement, follow-up, vocational assessment, and related instruction services. The moderately handicapped student, provided there are no extenuating circumstances, will follow the same sequence as the mildly handicapped student by attending exploratory, then preparatory work sites. These students generally start the process at an earlier age and are entitled to continue in school until the age of 21, provided the Diagnostic and Evaluation Team believes the student will continue to profit from school.

The Exploratory phase may begin as early as the age of 13. The moderately handicapped student is likely to need some type of assistance in completing vocational tasks in a community setting at this time. A teacher's aide or volunteer may be needed to attend the work site with the student. The moderately handicapped students generally do not rotate work sites nearly as often, perhaps attending an exploratory site as long as one year. This allows the student additional time to gain skills and interact appropriately with supervisors and coworks.

The onset of the Preparatory phase is dependent upon the skills of the student, but generally begins at the age of 17 or 18. Sheltered Workshop placements are used heavily at this time, especially at the beginning of this phase. Some moderately handicapped students are able to progress beyond sheltered employment level and if the Team feels that the student is likely to succeed in other types of preparatory placements, arrangements will be made with private employers, using job-training dollars to provide total or supportive employment while the student is still in school. In this way the student still has a supportive network of professionals to assist him/her and the parents in planning for the transition to adult life.

Summary

Space limitations for this paper prevents a tremendous amount of detail in the above paragraphs. It is hoped the reader will be able to understand the comprehensiveness and the systematic nature of the delivery of Work Experience and Job Training services to handicapped students throughout the Keystone AEA.

It is believed that this delivery system helps students toward the ultimate goal of employability in Northeast Iowa, even in these times of an unstable economy. Research conducted by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction bears this out. One-half of the graduates from the 1983-84 school year were studied in the summer of 1987. The High School Special Education programs these graduates participate in ranged from Resource Rooms to Self-Contained rooms for the moderately handicapped. Fully, ninety percent of these graduates were employed with eighty-three percent of these employed on a full-time basis Earnings ranged from a low of $2.50 per hour to a high of $9.03 per hour. Most research on the employment rates of handicapped students tends to be rather grim in it's outlook for this population. The same research in Northeast Iowa paints a more optimistic picture for this same population. The authors believe this is due, at least in part, to the nature of the career/vocational programs which these students receive in high school.

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Breaking the Traditional Model: A Preservice Preparation Program to Serve Rural Visually Handicapped Learners

Introduction

Throughout the United States there exists a serious and alarming shortage of trained teachers to work with visually impaired and blind children. Nowhere is this shortage being felt more acutely than in rural areas of the nation. Many factors are responsible for the recruitment and retention problems that administrators face in hiring these teachers, and it is the intent of this project at Portland State University to respond to this need in outlying school districts in Oregon and Washington.

As a result of the teacher shortage, documented by field input and statistical studies, we find many visually impaired children either without any direct services, or inappropriately placed and inadequately served. As sensory input is the most critical factor for continued progress in an educational setting, and since vision accounts for approximately 80% of that sensory input, visually impaired children are at a significant disadvantage without any direct services.

The focus of this project, then, is to respond to that shortage of adequately trained teachers of the visually handicapped in the Northwest by specifically preparing teachers to serve visually impaired and blind learners in rural settings. Breaking the traditional "teacher training" model, Portland State University is revamping its approach by providing not only training of an academic nature but by emphasizing the following:

1. Close working relationships with parents and community based programs - i.e. total program planning.
2. Strong advocacy training for visually impaired and blind learners.
3. Excellent outreach and consultive skills to regular classroom teachers, teacher aides and others.
4. Ongoing inservice training with parents, teachers and others from allied disciplines.

5. Effective communications throughout the community with those who have a vested interest in the welfare of a local visually handicapped student.
6. Personal and career development counseling to students, which will assist in long term commitment to the profession.

To achieve the goals of this project, graduate students are selected from rural communities on the basis of previous academic background and recommendations regarding their teaching qualifications and the likelihood that they will return and remain in the area. Once selected, students are offered a full scholarship for the three terms of study required for the completion of the Basic Certificate. To further accomplish the objectives of this project, Portland State University will:

1. Train teachers of visually handicapped learners in a program geared toward the unique needs of those living in rural areas.
2. Select trainees who are likely to return to these areas, thereby eliminating or reducing the problems of teacher recruitment and retention faced by many school administrators.
3. Select and develop practica sites which best exemplify a rural environment necessary for a quality university program.
4. Place increasing emphasis on the importance of home, school, and community collaboration in training teachers to work most effectively with visually impaired and blind children.
5. Develop a closer working relationship between rural school districts/regional vision programs and Portland State University, thereby meeting the need of professional growth opportunities requested by rural vision teachers.

Statement of Need

There exists today a serious nationwide shortage of adequately trained teachers of visually handicapped students, especially in rural areas (Parsons, 1986; Johnson, 1986). This shortage is being acutely felt in the rural school districts of Oregon and Washington (Stolle, 1986). According to Helge (1981), the percentage of rural school age children not enrolled in any program represents a nonenrollment rate of at least twice that of urban areas. Simply stated, the congressional mandates for equity of services for the handicapped population are clearly not being met in many rural areas.

Berthold Lowenfeld states that blindness "imposes three basic limitations on an individual:

(1) in the range and variety of experiences,
(2) in the ability to get about, and
(3) in the control of the environment and the self in relation to it". (Lowenfeld, 1975)

Given these three basic tenets, the way a visually handicapped student behaves and learns is dependent upon variable factors which include etiology of visual loss, amount of remaining vision, additional handicapping conditions, age of onset and personality of the student.

This sensory impairment requires a set of viable options to promote alternatives within the environment leading to success within the school and community.

For blind and visually impaired school aged children, lack of vision affects several curricular areas where intervention is required to insure concept and academic development leading to vocational success in adulthood. These would include:

(1) early childhood intervention to insure appropriate progress through sensory-motor and preconceptual stages of life
(2) materials and methodological adaptation during preoperational stages of life to include appropriate language development, using signs and symbols to establish basic environmental concepts of body imagery, spatial relationships, directionality, etc.
(3) the concrete and formal operative periods which occur during the academic years and involve a myriad of skills which need to be addressed to allow for normal progression:

a. Braille and nemeth code
b. Abacus
c. Activities of daily living
d. Orientation and mobility
e. Visually training
f. Vocational transition
g. Adapted material and methodology which parallels etiology of visual loss

Even the best of classroom teachers would have difficulty providing all that the visually handicapped child needs. As Spungin (Competency Based Curriculum for Teachers of the Visually Impaired: A National Study, 1977) points out so well, teachers need not only technical skills (i.e. braille, abacus, slate and stylus) but also skills to teach concepts that most children acquire through the use of vision, assessment skills, counseling skills, supervisory skills, and program construction skills.

PL 94-142 mandates a commitment to provide appropriate educational programming in the least restrictive environment. Both Oregon and Washington have accepted this mandate and are working to insure that every child, to the greatest extent possible, is educated with his nonhandicapped peers. However, despite the commitment, personnel shortages do exist for the following reasons:

A. Difficulty in recruitment and retention of vision teachers due to geographic and climate barriers. Many teachers, especially new graduates, find urban districts more appealing due to higher salaries, a wider variety of recreational and social opportunities, and greater access to professional growth possibilities (Johnson, 1986). In addition, severe weather conditions in the mountainous regions of Oregon and Washington negatively impact teacher-student contact time, continuity of services, and staff morale.

B. Population sparsity and the greater likelihood of professional isolation on the job. A number of studies have linked teacher retention rates to this isolating phenomenon (Bina, 1981; Adams, 1975). Furthermore, Bower (1976) found that teachers from rural school districts tended to demonstrate lower morale and a higher potential for attrition than corresponding teachers from larger school districts.

C. Sheer distances travelled. Itinerant vision teachers are responsible for serving students who often live extremely far from the school district's regional program office. For example, Oregon teachers commonly drive 100-150 miles one way (2-3 hours) to serve students in rural Harney County (Southeastern Oregon). The Eastern Oregon Regional Program for the Visually Handicapped currently serves 50 students who are scattered within a 28,000 square mile area!

D. Economic conditions. Unemployment rates in Central and Eastern Washington and Oregon continue to rank significantly above the national average (10-14%). Since vision programs are considered to be of high cost and low enrollment, funding for staff development and the addition of teaching faculty tends to receive a lower priority than that of funding for higher incidence programs (i.e. learning disabilities, speech impairments, etc.). Furthermore, there exists an inadequate regional funding formula for these low incidence students. Continued high unemployment has further eroded school tax bases and the state legislatures have been unwilling/unable to maintain necessary levels of support.

E. Proximity to teacher training institutions. Generally, residents of rural areas are unable to leave their families and travel to university training programs for an extended time. In addition, the relatively few university training programs (in the area of the visually handicapped) which do exist have experienced significant cutbacks in student financial support and outreach programs to rural areas and have directly been affected adversely.

The following statistics show the present service delivery within the two states:

	Washington	Oregon
legally blind students identified	904	570
# of trained teachers	16	41
student/teacher ratio	56:1	14:1
anticipated # of children	869 - 1,459	700 - 1,290

(Summary of Data on Handicapped Children and Youth, 1985)

These state reported statistics clearly show that there are large numbers of children who are not identified within the states or who are being underserved due to a lack of qualified personnel.

Response

Portland State University under a 3 year grant from the USOE has begun a series of curriculum adaptations to specifically prepare teachers to work in rural areas of the Northwest.

For the past 25 years, Portland State University has carried on a fairly traditional teacher preparation program on a graduate level involving core course working culminating in a student teaching experience. Through a needs assessment study begun in 1981 (Maron) it was determined that the university was not meeting the professional preparation needs especially in the rural areas. From this needs assessment, four major objectives were identified as necessary for all special education teachers: skill in diagnosis, planning, implementation and evaluation. Beyond these, additional needs were determined for those working in remote areas of the states. These included: strong advocacy training; excellent outreach and consultative skills; ongoing inservice training with parents, teachers and allied professionals, development of community based programs and effective communication skills to serve cross cultural populations in rural areas. Additionally, the ability to provide a self identity and continued personal professional growth while isolated has been determined to be of great significance in the retention of teachers in rural areas. (Fowler, 1981)

In order to prepare teachers of the visually handicapped, it quickly became apparent that modifications in the existing program would need to be made.

1. Development of a new course entitled Directed Field Practicum (and Seminar). Eight hours of contact time/week at school/home of a visually handicapped student will be required. In addition to working with a visually handicapped student in school, the trainee will also spend time as a citizen advocate for this person. This relationship may include participation in community recreation programs, helping access public transportation, providing respite care for parents, etc. Modeled after the program developed by Trunbull (1977), there exists some compelling evidence that this approach is a powerful training tool whereby prospective teachers get firsthand experiences with the direct and indirect influences of blindness on family dynamics.

Taken in the first term of the program, this practicum and seminar experience will give trainees an added dimension and more comprehensive exposure to the everyday realities of coping with blindness which is often not encountered during on-campus coursework. As a rule, rural itinerant vision teachers are called upon to work closely with parents, and their support of the school program is essential. This course will also help serve as an important screening device for evaluating teacher performance early in the program.

Additionally, this class will focus on working with professionals from allied disciplines, communication facilitation, and total program planning. Also, developing inservice training skills will be covered in conjunction with the class Communicating with Parents and Paraprofessionals. The inservice training models proposed by McGuigan

(1981) and Rubin (1978) will be explored. Essentially, inservice training is based on the factors of (1) defining specifically the training to be done, (2) identifying formal and informal authority figures, (3) identifying organizational components, (4) developing a quantifiable evaluation plan, (5) identifying multicultural events, and (6) budget analysis. These models appear to be ones that have particular value for itinerant teachers as a framework on which to add the unique opportunities or constraints imposed by a rural setting. The emphases of these models of inservice training lie in targeting specific behaviors for specific populations in measurable terms. Complimenting this program, the Careers inservice multimedia approach of the American Foundation for the Blind will be utilized.

2. Restructuring the class Communicating with Parents and Paraprofessionals. In addition to content on parent education programs, there will be infusion of two exemplary programs of organizing parent support groups which appear most applicable for rural areas. These include:

A. Parents as Partners in Support of Student Achievement (Sheldon, 1986) This program is based on three concepts: parent as teacher, parent as motivator of student learning, and building strong bonds of parent-teacher cooperation. The program is a three part series, the goals of which are: to identify the importance of the role of parents in student achievement, to teach parents how to assess their home as a learning environment for children and how to implement that knowledge, to help parents understand the characteristics of their child as a learner at different ages and stages, to help parents understand the correlation between positive self-esteem and student achievement and the parent's role in building their child's self-concept, to establish a partnership with parents on discipline and behavior expectations for home and school, and to teach parents how to use parent/teacher conferences as a way to establish open, clear, purposeful communication between school, parents, and children. It is a well organized, easy to follow program that could be readily implemented in rural settings by teachers, and

B. Parents as Effective Teachers of Visually Impaired Children (Robinson, 1984) Developed as a longitudinal study by the National Association of Parents of the Visually Impaired, it is an excellent resource for prospective teachers to learn about initiating parent support groups; implementing and maintaining them with close cooperation from the vision specialist.

3. Modification of Implications of Vision Problems class to include:

A. Greater emphasis on conducting vision screening programs to determine eligibility for special services from the itinerant vision teacher. National Association for the Prevention of Blindness guidelines will be utilized. Rural vision teachers are increasingly being called upon to perform these screening procedures, far more than teachers in urban settings. Emphasis will be placed on utilization of screening instruments and procedures that are cost-effective and could be readily accessed in the region.

B. Helping parents access community-based service groups and other resources which may provide financial and transportation aid in order to receive medical/optometric care, necessitating lost work time and high costs. Particularly helpful would be developing a network of services through the database at Low Vision Information Center in Portland, Oregon and Washington State Commissions for the Blind, local medical/optometric societies, etc.

C. Greater emphasis on securing low vision aids and appliances. We are currently working on developing a closer working relationship with Pacific University College of Optometry and anticipate staff from there to teach part of this class.

4. Infusion of microcomputer applications in Clinical Practicum I. Working in rural areas can be most isolating with little chance for professional growth opportunities. Access to the school district's microcomputer database can provide the itinerant teacher with many opportunities. For example, access to the ERIC system and Special Net provide opportunities for utilizing the latest research on curriculum development, program development, etc., important conferences acquisition of media and materials, etc. -- a vital service in rural areas! Microcomputer infusion is a very prominent part of this project. It represents a very exciting possibility for teachers in rural areas to develop networking skills for improved communication and services to visually handicapped students as well as to themselves professionally.

Additionally, to prepare teachers so they can provide outreach and consultive services to schools and community based programs, while acting as advocates for visually handicapped learners, the following modifications were made:

A. Greater emphasis on knowledge and implementation of the basic principles of PL 94-142, especially as they apply to advocacy issues as well as training in outreach skills. We will emphasize the critical importance of teachers as advocates by implementing the work of two pioneers in this field - Wolfensberger (1979) and Biklen (1979). Their views are based on the notion that good communication is at the heart of any advocacy effort. As such this approach corresponds with the goal of improved communication interaction for all those who impact on educational services for blind individuals. This approach focuses on developing skills of lobbying, initiating factfinding forums, stimulating community awareness, eliminating myths and stereotypes of blindness, etc. In addition the outreach model of service delivery developed by the Washington State School for the Blind (Maron, 1981) will be emphasized as one of a constellation of possible models to be implemented.

B. Modifying the focus of Student Teaching. Trainees will now do their student teaching in a rural school district, either in their home community or one similar to it. This experience will be very appropriate to the one in which they will be ultimately employed. One key requirement of this practicum is that trainees be strong advocates for visually handicapped learners as they interact with the regular class teacher and support personnel, as well as school administrators.

C. Infusion of skills in providing inservice training to paraprofessionals, teacher aides, and volunteers. Using the models discussed above (McGuigan, 1981; Rubin, 1978), this will enable itinerant teachers to broaden the impact of their teaching significantly, especially between visitations to the local school. It also has an additional potential effect of interesting more people in a professional career or working with the visually handicapped. Finally, such a program also helps to set a more positive tone about the capabilities of the visually handicapped as more and more people have the opportunity to interact with them. Numerous attitudinal studies have shown that children feel more positive about the capabilities of blind peers as their frequency of interaction increases.

Overall, this preservice training model views the role of rural vision teachers differently than the preparation required for those teaching in more urban areas. Both provide instruction to students, but the rural teacher must also be a strong coordinator of service from many diverse areas. These include:

1. Working closely with parents in a consultive capacity, as an organizer of parent support groups, and providing inservice to parents on advocacy issues.

2. Accessing regional and local services which have historically provided resources (i.e. State Library for the Blind, volunteer braille groups, Lions Clubs, etc.) and those which are available to other students as well (child development specialist, school psychologist, community recreation program staff, etc.)

3. Organizing inservice training with regular classroom teachers, parents, etc., to maintain the effectiveness and progress of the mainstreaming efforts between regularly scheduled school visits.

4. Implementing basic principles of organizational development and political awareness such that building administrators and the vision specialist develop a close working relationship with mutually agreed upon objectives.

5. Developing a network not only with other vision teachers, but also with professionals from allied disciplines who also have a vested interest in the welfare of visually handicapped students.

A word must be said here regarding the practicum experiences, for the practicum becomes the real core of experience as the student progresses through the class work. The practica which is required during each term of the program serves needs beyond those previously listed. Through seminars and integration with the PSU classroom experience, it provides the opportunity to develop problem solving skills within the community in which they are located. Too, the student is required to maintain a daily journal, not only describing their concrete experiences, but must also contain personal reflections and feelings about themselves, their interpersonal relationships with staff and students, and self evaluations, leading to greater indepth understanding of themselves and the profession.

Summary

State and national statistics document an alarming shortage of trained teachers of the visually handicapped in the Pacific Northwest. In response to this need, Portland State University has significantly modified its existing teacher preparation model to address specific needs of professionals who will be employed in rural areas of Washington and Oregon.

As generic special education preparation is inappropriate for sensory impaired children, very specific coursework is integrated with core practica experiences which lead to competencies in work with rural communities. Using this approach, Portland State University will provide training in cross-cultural populations, effective communication skills, problem solving skills, creative programming skills, inservice training professionals, as well as providing personal growth and development impetus for the teaching professional.

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RESEARCHING RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION IN SCANDINAVIA

The outlines of the development of special eduation in the Nordic countries

For the purpose of co-operation there are many cultural and joint organizations that also work in the field of special education. The latest of the joint ventures was the "En skola för alla" -project (Dahlgren-Nielsen 1984), which got started in the meetings of government officials and was funded by the Nordic Council of Ministers. It examined the history of special education, which was found to date back some 175 to 200 years. The beginning of discussions on integration is placed to the beginning of the 1960's, and during the next decade these ideas surfaced in the USA and Canada under the heading "mainstreaming". The initiatives within the field of special education have mainly orginated from private persons but today all countries safeguard in their legislation everyone's right to schooling. This is most clearly stated in Norway. Finland was the last to put this into effect when the school legislation was revised in 1983 even though in practice it had happened much earlier.

A central target group in all countries has been special education in compulsory schools even though the concept of special care has included both institutional and open care. Special education that aims at the young, including also the period of vocational training, has been discussed, also more profoundly the special questions of adult and old people's education. The question of aims must always be under discussion as well as the relations to the general school system and the greater changes of society.

Also research and post-graduate studies include a lot of co-operation, e.g., in the form of Nordic Courses for Researchers and through the exchange of students and lecturers.

There are also some joint projects that in some expensive fields seem to expand to joint European undertakings. In addition to official co-operation there exist a lot of unofficial relations. There are, e.g., agreements on the freedom of movement of the labour force and the Nordic citizens need no passports when they visit other Nordic countries.

The outlines of development of special education have mainly followed parallel course in the Nordic countries. Sweden has had the best economic resources to proceed a little ahead of the others, but in the other countries we have done our best to also learn from the mistakes they have done. It often seems, though, that a certain succession must be followed so that every step must definitely be followed and no skipping over is possible. As an example might serve the construction of institutions for the handicapped in Finland at the end of the 1960's, which bound the resources so that only today the dissolution of the heavy network of institutions is being set as a goal. In Finland the development has been somewhat slower, lagging about 10-15 years behind, even if also some of the disturbing phenomena have arrived here more slowly. (Stukát-Bladini 1986, Tuunainen-Nevala 1987.)

As to the position of school psychologists Finland has followed a little different path than the others because the medical emphasis has been prominent in rehabilitation. Since the 1960's the amount of psychologists has greatly increased in employment exchange offices, family and child guidance centres and mental health occupations, but not as a school psychological system.

Quite lately also the possibilities of study have become manifold, even though results should only be expected in the future. Also the viewpoint of the sociology of education has become stronger, but research needs a lot of developing.

As a figure the short history can be seen as follows:

Period of time	Goal	Target
1980's	Full participation and equality The same possibilities of activity as the rest of society	Living and activity environments Permanent channels of influence
1970's and 1960's	To increase the possibilities of activity of the disabled people in an integrative way = together with the rest of society	Public organizations of care
1950's and 1940's	To increase the capability of action of the disabled people	Special services (as a statutory system)
1930's	"Helping"	Separate activities of help (on charity basis)

Figure 1. The goals and targets of the measures connected with disability during the different periods of time

The figure constructed by the Finnish committee for the International Year of the Disabled People in 1982 is an outline, but it also helps to see the changes in child special care and teaching from a separate, voluntary charity to an integrated form of social activity, which, however, needs its own special attention and professional knowledge. The same committee report also included a study on the schooling of the disabled children, which was carried out in the province of Northern Karelia. This study is still under way but from the results obtained it can be seen that in our country the supporting activities for disabled children in their early stages of life are on a high level, even internationally seen, but the problems most clearly surface after the end of comprehensive school.

The classic triangle of close fields can be found in education, psychology and social science and sociology. Relations to neurosciences, linguistics, anthropology, computer science and elsewhere have expanded, even though at the same time special educational research must take a holistic, compiling angle of examination to the integrated care of the diseased and disabled child.

The research area of child welfare and teaching is so immense and complex that continuous science-political discussion is needed to outline it. One must also have the courage to grasp the delicate matters as, e.g., the proportions of emphasis between the various fields of science from the point of view of some basic social duties.

Uncritical over-use of medical terminology has been apparent in education; an activity that is quite close to normal education turns into therapy, basic phenomena are described with strong concepts, taken, e.g., from mental health care, or if one is not able to find a more exact explanation, an umbrella concept is resorted to, as MBD.

Some forthcoming questions of special education in the Nordic countries

We will next take up some questions that have come up in research that we think have an effect on the future of special education. If the development goes on in trends or megatrends, the best guess of the coming situation is a revised extension of the present, but we have also come to the point where even global shocks could be expected. The different ways of producing energy, international relations, world economics and other facts are very vulnerable and changing in any case, so apparently some changes withing special education are to be expected, too.

The systems of education have largely been developed on the ground of the requirements of working life, but in this respect the predictions differ a lot. It seems that many regard as the main alternative a situation where still fewer competent workers are needed and then presumably those that are in need of special education are kicked out first and also out of other functions of society. With this alternative in mind special education should offer programmes that are not bound with work and which could, however, guarantee as independent a life as possible. On the other hand, in industrialized countries the growth of population has mainly changed so that the youngest age groups get smaller and the decrease of the whole population has only been postponed due to the lenghtening of the general life span. The third alternative is to increase the mobility of the whole global population, which is now also facing the Nordic countries.

Even the main emphasis of the questions of disability is centered in the third world countries, because according to Wiesinger (1986) of the total population of 5 billion on earth about 500 million are disabled and of them 400 million live in the third world countries. Of people living there the great majority, 350 million, live in countryside where they completely lack the basic services in education and health care.

In natural sciences an interesting concept, ecology, can be found and it has now been applied to the behaviour of man, too. The best known name for us is Urie Bronfenbrenner, but before him the terminology has been used in many connections (Apter-Conoley 1984). It is quite apparent that it would be possible and probably even beneficial to develop from ecology or the ecological orientation a new umbrella concept that is lacking some of the previous defects.

A central aim in the placement of disabled children is always to attempt to minimize the side effects of support. This has been discussed and even studied in connection with institutionalized care, as also the pros and cons of placement to special schools and special classes versus integration into a normal class.

From the USA we have received a term LRE (least restrictive environment) that is also regarded as a useful concept of study. It has, however, been formulated in a courtroom and needs further research.

Biklen (1982) emphasizes in LRE-application the simultaneousness and necessity of the following seven principles, which at the same time could also direct research work. 1) The basic programmes must be of **high quality** in all levels, because the marring of one stage spoils all other stages. 2) **Economic equity** is essential. 3) Services should make a **continuum** without jumps. On the other hand, services of every kind should be available. 4) **Monitoring** where parents or their representatives, organizations for instance, have their own central task. 5) **Programme philosophy**, which should always lead to practical solutions instead of mere goal sentences. 6) **Curriculum** that widely defined contains the plans of everything needed in individual level and 7) **public awareness** so that contacts between the parents and society are also made on other occasions than when the organization needs special support.

The influence of information technology has been important even in this field and broader than just as a medium of teaching. This new technology which removes distances, changes the structure of working life, serves as a tool and makes distant or close work possible, opens huge visions, although many economic aspects also come with it. In western Europe some cut-offs in social expenditure have already been realized, which has also been expected in the Nordic countries with some anxiety. No one believes in it today, but more active debates on, for example, the degree of taxes and the privatization of services have surfaced.

The future development can be defined in many ways. The most common is the so-called linear or mostly curvilinear, but in economy also the fluctuations of the economic situation are quite well known and as early as in the 1920's Kondratjev presented in economics his theory of the so-called long cycles, which is much debated, but comes up from time to time. According to him, the length of the cycles is about 50 years, and the model can also be tested in special education. The cyclic and the linear way of study can also be regarded as the main difference between the western and the eastern way of thinking, as cultural orientations to the study of which we have excellent opportunities in Finland. Finland is in a way a meeting place of the eastern and western societies, even though the most prominent eastern trait is the other state church, the Greek-Catholic that has about 60 000 members, mainly in the eastern parts of Finland. Its influence is much wider, though, as a bearer of wide Byzantine cultural tradition.

The amounts of population are quite small in the Nordic countries, but from their economic and cultural potential these countries can have something to give for the development of special education, too. On the other hand, as this world of ours is getting smaller and the economy centers around the Pacific Ocean, one has to keep in mind the possibility that the Nordic countries will become a nostalgic outdoor museum that is mainly visited in search of one's own roots or because people want to see how the ancestors once dwelled.

2. The Field-Work Phase

When actually studying special education in sparsely populated areas we mainly used methods originating from the so called "Chicago Sociology" or the "Chicago School", action research and organizational learning. Much of our theoretical framework was inspired by Robert C. Bogdan's and Biklen's (1982) thoughts and ideas. The same is due to Harry Judge's (1982) brilliant report on American graduate schools of education.

The field work was carried out by making trips to rural communities and interviewing - besides ordinary and special teachers-local educational authorities, school psychologists, health personnel and parents. Participant observation was the main method on the site. This all was done by our research team consisting of one full-time researcher and three part-time researchers. Additionally, when interviewing people in rural communities, two or three advanced students from the department of special education were with us making fieldnotes and observing. After every interview the group talked about the day's impressions, observations and possible paradoxes found in the community's special educational setting. Our main interest was one features which put together would enable us to decide whether special education was organized and given adequately in the community in focus (Bogdan 1972; Susman 1983). One of our aims was to create models for both a well-organized and a poorly organized special educational system in a sparsely populated rural community, something like Harry Judge's "Waterend" and "Highside".

After a prepatory field journey in Lapland (the northernmost parts of Scandinavia) with six rural communities visited and about forty persons interviewed in two weeks, we had the main topics ready to be discussed in detail with people living in Northern Karelia (seven communities) and in Southern Lapland (six communities). We visited all of these communities at least twice, mainly for two reasons: 1) action research requires interventions and specifying learning, and in-service training was one way of giving rise to organizational learning and 2) we could clarify aspects that stayed obscure or overlooked during the first visit(s). The next step was to consult these communities and give them stimuli for the future organizing of their actual special education (Schön 1983). Simultaneously we have been evaluating the effects of the already proposed actions and possible changes in special educational settings in these communities (Burrello & Sage 1979; Eisner 1985).

Except Finland we are studying special educational conditions in other parts of Scandinavia, especially those in Sweden, Norway and Iceland. Besides problems very similar to those observed in Finland we have got acquainted with multi-lingual and multi-cultural aspects among people living on both sides of the Arctic Circle. This is due to at least three facts: 1) within Scandinavia, free immigration and emigration are both possible and an everyday reality (e.g. neither visas nor passports are required from Scandinavian citizens when travelling or working in other Scandinavian countries), 2) in Lapland there is a Lapp minority with its own language and culture quite different from that of the majorities, and 3) because of historical reasons many people are now living in areas, which formerly belonged to another country or were so called boundary-free commune areas. (Sher 1981.)

When generalizing models for both well-organized and poorly organized special educational settings in scantily populated areas it is possible to outline two fictitious communities, the former called "Sterling", the latter "Hindside". These models are to serve also as check-lists for both teachers & special teachers and local educational authorities (and IEAs & SEAs) when trying to carry out their tasks more conveniently and, at the same time, more efficiently. It is possible to plan updating career (in-service) training for educational, special educational and official staff suiting best the local unique conditions. (Bell & Sigsworth 1987.)

What does special educational setting in "Sterling" look like?

Twice a year, all the special teachers, headmasters of different grades and representatives of social and health offices gather in LEA's office to make a detailed plan for the execution of special education according to local needs and resources. At the same time they evaluate the succeedings and failures during the last six-month period (and, of course, within one to five years).

As representatives of government (and county) the director of school affairs and - if there is one - the secretary of school affairs back up special educational plans in the school board. This includes both the actual teaching in schools (materials, new technology and adequate working conditions) and updating career training (in-service training or e.g. university courses).

Student welfare and consulting activities, both formal and informal, have been well taken care of. To accomplish this task, special teachers and other student welfare personnel have arranged regular meetings once or twice a month. Different views in e.g. pupil transitions to special classes have been discussed and thereafter a unanimous solution has been found and executed.

The special school in "Sterling" (for slow learners or EMRs) is so situated that connections with normal classes are natural and daily. This enables easy transitions to and from special school. Because of frequent articles about special school and special education there are no problems with stigmas or unfavourable labelling in "Sterling's" special educational setting.

Due to careful planning and fluent co-operation all the children in need of special education are able to get it in the relevant form and extent. Some of these children are in preparatory classes, most are in lower and upper level schools, and again some (especially those coming from special classes) in upper secondary schools and vocational schools.

Very rare a phenomenon in "Sterling" is a change in special educational personnel, i.e. special teachers's emigration. When asked why they want to work in "Sterling" such answers have been given as: "Here I have a strong feeling about being an appreciated professional in rather solid and loyal a team." or "I get all the necessary support from LEAs and my colleagues, in other words, it is nice to know that we are pulling the same rope and - what is more important - in the same direction!"

How are things going on in "Hindside"?

"Hindside's" director of school affairs suspects that special teachers are unable to make accurate and relevant plans according to actual needs. One of his favourite sayings is: "I doubt if they really know the number of children in need of special education in "Hindside" at the moment." Furthermore, he wants to restrict the area where itinerant special teachers work to the nearest lower level schools and to the schools in "Hindside" itself (i.e. the population centre of the community). Numerous referrals to monetary costs flavour his speech. However, he thinks "Hindside" has taken care of all forms and needs in special educational setting to a sufficient and adequate extent.

Three years ago a student welfare and consulting group was established in "Hindside" with members from social, health and educational branches. After the first meeting 36 months ago the members have been waiting an invitation to another meeting.

We asked the LEA to call a meeting with all the people concerned with special educational setting in "Hindside" to talk about problems and co-operation together. When seated it was found out that only special teachers (itinerant and special class teachers) were there. In fact, this was not so very surprising, but soon we realized that this was the first time in nearly three years for them to see and chat with each other. It was clear, then, that no co-ordinated planning had been possible during the recent years nor did they agree upon principles in defining a child as being a slow learner or an EMR not to mention about transitions to and from special classes. The itinerant special teachers told that 70 % of their actual teaching is correction of speech disorders, 20 % is helping those who have difficulties in reading and writing, and the rest is shared between slow learners and EMRs in small rural lower level schools. A light touch of more than mild surprise was to be seen on the faces of special class teachers...

When talking about shifting from lower level to upper level a quotation could be enlightening. The upper level special teacher (not in a special class) told that "It would never occur to me to go over the school yard to take my coffee break in the teachers' room in the lower level school."

A few months later we had the opportunity to interview a special teacher, who had left "Hindside" for a similar job in a neighbouring community. With a slight hint of bitterness in her voice she told, among other things, about the reasons to leave "Hindside": "I felt like a lonely wolf without possibilities to consult with other specialists. I myself think I am a qualified professional, but nobody seemed to share my opinion, neither the LEA nor my colleagues." This sad chat finished a reminiscence of the allegoric rope in "Sterling" popped out. All the jig-saw pieces were like those in "Sterling", but this time it seemed as if the rope being pulled were wound around someone's neck...

3. Conclusion

When planning future studies we easily end up with large utopies, scenarios or visions which have no connections with the past. We think Morgan (1983) presents some very good strategies to be used in social studies, which we are now naturally dealing with. Above the level of problem solution he has a level of metaphore and above all a level of paradigm that is always worth a critical examination.

From the level of metaphor many interesting models can be found with which to sketch new themes of study. E.g. the metaphor or travel agency in individual schooling is interesting; are we striving at cheap mass tourism or individual culture tours. Models from close fields are also viable, e.g., those from medical education by Abraham Flexner (1940) and his theses of The Center of Excellency can be adapted to teacher training, too. Also wider socially critical debate is important as, e.g., the pull-out model by Biklen and Zollers (1986) or even a general desire to ponder the whole field from a new angle. It only seems that the power of corporations and teacher organizations in teacher education are problematic. Even good ideas can't be fulfilled if they involve that the teacher leaves his or her classroom or the school building, a possibility to have to work during evenings or weekends or threats to time of vacation. Similar criticism is presented against Flexner's model of medical training. The essential is to guarantee the interests of the medical staff or at least this point of view is unnoticeably too centrally involved in decision making.

Special education will also continuously need enthusiastic, competent and persistent spokesmen among both teachers and researchers and experts of other fields. Without optimism and a point of view that continuously looks forward and believes in the future we will only end up with the situation where the growth of problems is moaned and only a small step separates us from becoming fed up, burned out and wearied. In sociology the Norwegians ironically call their own youth a dessert generation, which may include some ideas of a toiling generation, but we probably use clinical terminology too easy in general problems. So many groups influence special education that we have to master better than ever before also the social terminology and ways of definition without ever forgetting the target, a unique invidual. In educational research and discussions we too easily become interested in the intermediate forms of the phenomena, organizations, classroom sizes and alike. Even the history of the ways of teaching can be defined as a series of history of exaggeration, which on the other hand has the positive side that there always exist enthusiastic people and those who have a trust on their own field. The demand of special education will to a large extent be defined by the general situation of the school system and in all Nordic countries special education unfortunately sells well.

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A Needs-Based Approach for Providing Comprehensive Family Services

Services for young children with handicaps and their families have evolved over the past several decades. Initially, the young child was exclusively the focus of intervention. However, by the end of the 1960's parents were usually involved in some aspect(s) of the intervention. During the seventies empirical evidence as well as legislation (P.L.94-142) served as catalysts in facilitating increased parent/family involvement in early intervention. The family is now recognized as the most important of the ecological contexts in whcih child development occurs (Framo, 1979). As a result of recent federal legislation, P. L. 99-457, family involvement in early intervention is mandated.

Traditional family involvement models were based on the individual (e.g., parent counseling) or the dyad (e.g., parent-mediated interventions such as behavior modification), with professionals equating parent with mother (Bristol & Gallagher, 1986; Stayton, 1987). Eventually, though, it was generally perceived that intervention with a child or parent was an intervention with the entire family (Foster, Berger, & McLean, 1981). Families are interdependent, complex systems and professionals must consider the needs and skills of the entire family (Bailey et al., 1986; Foster et al., 1981; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1986). Each member of the family may have different concerns (Wandersman, Wandersman, & Kahn, 1980). Family involvement services, therefore, must be designed relative to the individual characteristics of each family.

Those in the helping professions must be cognizant of the benefits and detriments of various family involvement options to the total family unit: parents, the child with the handicap, and extended family members. Individualizing family services requires a knowledge of the characteristics of families, which include family interaction, family resources, family functions, and family life cycle (Turnbull, Summers, & Brotherson, 1984; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1986).

The family system is comprised of four major subsystems: (1(spouse system, or husband and wife interaction, (2) parental subsystem, child-parent interactions, (3) sibling subsystem, child-child interactions, and (4) extrafamilial subsystem, interactions between persons outside the family and individual family members or the entire family (Minuchin, 1974). The amount of cohesion or involvement which occurs between family members, each family member's adaptability or ability to handle change, and the communication channels which operate between the family members all influence the interactions within and among these different subsystems. The four subsystems described above comprise the total family interaction and are the hub of the family system.

Interactions between and among family members within each of the four subsystems are shaped by three different components: (1) family resources, (2) family functions, and (3) family life cycle. Professionals must have a knowledge of each of these three components and understand the impact each has on the total family interaction before individualized family interventions may be developed.

Family resources consist of how a family looks to an outside observer, and the elements of family resources are descriptive in nature and interact to make each family unique (Benson & Turnbull, 1986). Families with children that are handicapped differ in many ways, and it is these differences in (1) the characteristics of the exceptionality, (2) the characteristics of the family as a whole, and (3) the personal characteristics of each individual family member which determine the resources of a family.

Families have various tasks or functions that they carry out to meet the needs of the family as a whole. Within a family systems framework nine specific functions that families usually perform or are responsible for have been identified (Turnbull, Summers, & Brotherson, 1983). The nine basic family functions are: (1) economic, (2) physical care, (3) rest and recuperation, (4) socialization, (5) self-definition, (6) affection, (7) guidance, (8) education, and (9) vocational. A family's capacity to meet each of these family functions can be impacted by the presence of a child with a handicap, and the family's success in meeting each of these functions may determine the family's readiness and/or willingness to be involved in family involvement programming options.

Just as individuals pass through developmental stages from infancy to adulthood, so too families transition through various stages as part of the family life cycle (Carter & McGoldrick, 1980; Turnbull et al., 1983). The family life cycle can be considered as a series of stages, with entry into each stage usually defined by a specific event (e.g., birth, marriage, death), and each stage being characterized by differing amounts of stress and stability.

It is important for professionals to understand how families change over time, that the changes brought about by the family's movement through the family life cycle will affect the needs and attitudes of individual family members, and that the presence of a child with exceptionalities will impact upon the changes within the family as it passes through the family life cycle. The needs of families with young children with special needs are vastly different from the needs of families with adults with special needs, and an understanding of the family life cycle and these changing needs will facilitate individualized family programming for specific families.

There is not agreement about the number of stages in the family life cycle; many stages overlap. Generally, however, families with children move through the following stages: (1) birth and preschool period, (2) school-age period, (3) adolescent period, (4) adult period, and (5) retirement and old age period.

Professionals must have an understanding of the family life cycle in order to develop intervention programming which will be responsive to the changing nature of the family. Transitions are important times in the family life cycle, and are often accompanied by increased stress (Wikler, 1981). Professional sensitivity to the importance of transitions, and awarenesss regarding the stage in the family life cycle, is necessary in order to individualize family services.

In sum, from a family systems perspective each family is unique becuase of differences in family interactions, available family resources, family functions fulfilled, and stage of family life cycle. Individually matching services to the values and needs of each family is essential (Karnes & Zehrbach, 1975). The following discussion will provide a model for individualizing family involvement services. In rural areas, however, it may be difficult for small, understaffed programs to implement such a comprehensive model of services. Therefore, a model for providing individualized family involvement services via interagency collaboration will also be presented. A brief discussion regarding practical application of the the interagency model for providing family services will conclude the paper.

A Model for Individualizing Family Involvement Services

An individualized approach to planning, implementing, and evaluating family services must be implemented if the unique needs of families are to be addressed. Stayton and Gunsberg (1985) proposed such an approach which includes the following steps: (1) determining the attitudes and principles of the program and the staff toward family involvement, (2) assessing family needs, (3) developing individual and group family plans, (4) implementing the program, and (5) evaluating the program.

Determining attitudes and principles toward family involvement. The first step in developing an effective family involvement program is for the staff to identify their own knowledge, skills, and attitudes about families and working with families and to establish a set of principles which will guide all aspects of the program. Traditionally, family involvement has not been a major focus of personnel preparation programs. Thus, many professionals may feel that they do not have adequate knowledge and skills to work with families. This lack of training may in part be a factor in barriers being established which prevent effective family-professional interactions. Assessing the staff's competencies in providing individualized family services and then providing training in identified areas, therefore, is a critical step in establishing a family involvement program. Bowser and his colleagues (1978) identified six competency areas based on competencies listed by professionals who work with families. These six competency areas included: (1) self development and human relations, (2) communications and group process, (3) individual development and exceptionalities, (4) family systems and family involvement, (5) crisis intervention and problem solving, and (6) work environment and human services systems. Assessment in these competency areas may identify areas in which staff would benefit from inservice education. Cansler and her colleagues (1975) suggested five general areas in whcih all staff should receive inservice: (1) development of understanding and empathy for the stresses and needs in families with children who have handicaps, (2) assessment of program philosophy and orientation, 93) information about general program planning and specific program strategies, 4) acquiring communication and interpersonal skills, and (5) knowing and using community resources.

A set of principles for the family involvement program should also be established. These principles should reflect the type of relationship that staff wants to have with family members, as well as include specific assumptions about families and the relationship of those assumptions to the family involvement program.

Assessing family needs. The second step in providing an individualized family involvement program is to assess the needs of the families. In a family systems model, family assessment procedures should be based on three assumptions. First, both family and staff perceptions of needs are considered to be useful and valid (Bailey et al., 1986). Second, the needs of all family members must be assessed. Therefore, instruments should be completed by both the mother and father. In addition, the needs of siblings and extended family members should be determined if appropriate. And finally, a variety of assessment procedures which address the needs of individual family members, as well as the family as an interdependent system should be utilized.

Numerous procedures and instruments are available for assessing family needs. In selecting appropriate procedures, the staff must consider all aspects of the family system (i.e., family interactions, family functions, family resources, and family life cycle). The most widely used procedures seem to be: (1) questionnaires (e.g., checklists, rating scales), (2) interviews (i.e., structured and unstructured), and (3) observation.

Developing individual and group family plans. The third step in the process of developing a comprehensive family involvement program is to develop family plans. First, an individual family plan should be developed for each family. Then, group family plans based on the highest priorities of individual families and homogeneous needs of the group should be developed (Cansler et al., 1975). Family plans and the process for developing them are very similar to the development of the child's IEP.

Information obtained from the family assessements must be reviewed to determine the priority needs of each family. These priority needs are then incorporated into an Individualized Family Plan (IFP) which contains prioritized goals and objectives, strategies for achieving the goals and objectives, responsilities of family members and staff, a timeline, and evaluation criteria (Bristol & Gallagher, 1982; Cansler et al., 1975). Strategies for achieving the goals and objectives should be selected based on the type of goal/objective to be acheived--knowledge, skills, or attitude (Harris & Bessent, 1969). For example, if parents want more information about handicapping conditions, lectures or material to read may be appropriate; however, if parents want to acquire teaching skills, then role play and observation in the classroom may be more appropriate. Initially, it may seem difficult to include objective evaluation criteria in the family plan. However, if family plans are to be effectively implemented and evaluated, specific outcomes must be specified (Bailey et al., 1986). For example, outcomes may include activities in which the parents can be observed (e.g., playing with or teaching the child) or permanent products (e.g., games/toys to use with the child at home).

Family members should be included in all steps of this planning process (Cansler et al., 1975; Karnes & Zehrbach, 1975)). If goals and objectives are based on needs identified by family members, they may be more committed and motivated to achieve the objectives. However, in some cases the professional may identify needs which differ from those identified by the family and which may seem to be critical to the development of the child and the functioning of the family. For example, the child may have a serious medical problem which the family has not recognized and/or does not have the financial resources with which to provide medical intervention. In this case, the professional may include a goal(s) related to obtaining financial assistance and seeking medical intervention. If the professional does include alternative goals/objectives, this should be carefully discussed with the family and efforts should be made to not develop goals that are in opposition to the family system (e.g., cultural values, family functions) (Bailey et al., 1986).

Information from the IFPs should next be summarized, with priority needs which pertain to group-oriented goals and objectives incorporated into a Group Family Plan (GFP). This GFP contains the same components as the IFP (i.e., goals, objectives, strategies for achieving the goals and objectives, responsibilities of family members and staff, timelines, and evaluation criteria).

Implementing the family involvement program. The fourth step in developing a comprehensive family involvement program is to actually implement the services delineated in the family plans. To provide for individual needs of families, a variety of program options must be available. Some families may benefit from and want to be involved in all available options. While other families may only want and need to be involved in one or two services. Still other families may not want to be involved in the program, thus allowing them more time to interact with the child and other family members (MacMillan & Turnbull, 1983). Further, professionals must be cognizant that services provided to one member of the family affect other family members. Thus services should be available to all family members and should be designed to take into account all aspects of the family system.

If the unique needs of families are to be met, family involvement programs must provide a range of services for family members with selection of those services based on the assessment of individual needs (Bristol & Gallagher, 1982; Carney, 1983). Welsh and Odum (1981) identified six components that are typically included in family involvement programs. First, a social and emotional support component that includes assistance for parents in expressing and clarifying feelings/needs, gaining knowledge and skills to cope with the handicap, developing effective parenting skills, and obtaining information about services (e.g., medical) may be included. Second, parents may be involved in advocacy roles in planning, evaluating, disseminating, and promoting the program by serving on advisory boards, presenting programs at conferences and other meetings, and lobbying for legislation. Third, parents have certain rights and responsibilities under PL94-142 to be included as members of the decision-making team as it relates to the identification, evaluation, and placement of their child. Fourth, education through a variety of activities such as self-instructional programs and group sessions may also be included as a program option. Fifth, parents often serve as teachers, either as paid staff or volunteers in the classroom or as primary teachers in home-based programs. And finally, parents are involved through various means of communication (e.g., conferences, phone call, newsletters).

Evaluating the family involvement program. The fifth step in a comprehensive family involvement program is program evaluation. Evaluation is essential to determine the overall effectiveness of the family involvement program, as well as to determine components of the program which may need to be adapted or to identify services which may need to be added. Program evaluation, therefore, should be both formative and summative with three major evaluation questions addressed: (1) Were the goals and objectives accomplished? (2) To what extent were the goals and objectives accomplished? and (3) Were family members and staff satisfied with the program?

First, it is important to determine if the goals and objectives in both the individual and group family plans were accomplished. The documentation of services provided (e.g., group meetings held, newsletters distributed, and home visits made) can verify that planned activities were completed.

Second, the amount of change in program participants as a result of involvement in specific activities must be measured. The type of data collected to measure outcomes should be based on the evaluation criteria included in the objectives of the IFPs and GFPs. A variety of measures may be utilized (e.g., parent-child interaction, family stress, family support). Standardized instruments (e.g., Parenting Stress Index, Abidin, 1983) and standardized procedures (e.g., application of single-subject research design to study parent-child interactions) may be used. Standardized instruments should be administered on a pre-post basis. If standardized instruments/procedures are not appropriate or available, "...criterion-referenced judgments of changes in items themselves will therefore have to be used to determine intervention effectiveness" (Bailey et al., 1986, pp. 165-166). Bailey and his colleagues also suggest the use of Goal Attainment Scaling (G.A.S.), a method for measuring individual progress on goals and objectives.

The third evaluation question is to determine the extent to which family members and staff are satisfied with the family involvement program. Satisfaction measures may provide valuable information which cannot be obtained through more objective measures. Further, by asking family members to provide attitudinal information about the program, they may come to feel that they are integral part of the program and that their opinions are valued and used to make chanbes. If results of the satisfaction meausre are to be used to make program modifications, rating scales (e.g., likert scales) on which persons rate certain aspects of the program may be more helpful than questions that address overall satisfaction. (Bailey et al., 1986). Alternative scales might be those which force persons to rank-order services or to sort services into categories (e.g., needs improvement).

Providing Family Services Through Interagency Collaboration

Implementation of the previously described model for individualizing family services may be difficult in a rural area. Therefore, to improve services for families of young children with handicaps, agencies may find it beneficial to work collaboratively. Elder (1980) offers the following definition of interagency collaboration:

> It can be broadly defined as an attempt by two or more agencies or programs to work together to integrate their separate activities for the purpose of improving services for a defined population. This coordination can include cooperative efforts in planning, budgeting, services delivered to a common clientele, or any functions common to participating agencies. These cooperative efforts are, then, usually spelled out in written interagency collaboration agreements. (pp. 195-196).

Interagency collaboration can be an effective way to provide services to families of young children with disabilities living in rural areas (Hutinger, 1981). By working together, agencies can meet the multidisciplinary needs of families. Because no one discipline has all the expertise to carry out quality services for families of children with handicaps, interagency collaboration can bring professionals from many fields together to serve the needs of families (Peterson, 1983). This is especially true in rural areas where early intervention programs may be limited in staff (Hutinger, 1981). A second benefit of interagency collaboration is to coordinate activities of multiple service providers (Peterson, 1983). This coordination can help identify where there are gaps in services to families and also reduce duplication of services (Linder, 1983). Coordination can also allow both parents and serivce providers a central facility to manage the vast amount of paper work required to obtain services. Effective utilization of resources is a third advantage to interagency collaboration. By cutting down on duplicated services, dollars can be released and used to enhance and expand the quality of services available. In addition, demonstrating interagency coordination can provide a vehicle for obtaining federal grant monies for future funding (Peterson, 1983).

Interagency collaboration can involve many different types of activities. The way in which it carried out is affected by the unique characteristics of the community served. Peterson (1983) suggests that the following five factors influence the individuality of each effort at interagency collaboration:

1. the particular social-political atmosphere among agencies in the community
2. the scope of services that the interagency group intends to address
3. the availability of resources and the degree of competition for these same resources by other agencies
4. the expectations and motives each participant brings to the collaborative effort
5. the group dynamics that evolve among individuals in the group and the tactics each employs to pursue group or individual goals (p. 244)

To develop an effective interagency system requires: (a) planning, (b) implementation, and (c) evaluation/planning (Peterson, 1983). During the planning phase, those to be involved in the interagency collaboration develop a specific plan of operation. The plan should be in writing and delineate purposes/goals of the group, roles/responsibilities of member agencies, and powers/rights the agencies hold individually and collectively.

The implementation phase involves two steps: transitional activities and full scale implementation. While in the transition step agencies begin orienting their staff and clients to the new interagency system. They start phasing in each step of the plan of operation previously developed. After completing the transition step, the interagency group begins implementing all parts of the plan of operation and carrying out maintenance activities (e.g., regular meeting and other contacts) to keep the operation running smoothly.

Evaluation involves refining the interagency system. Procedures are refined or revised and gaps in the system are filled in as necessary.

This three phase process has been applied to the development of an interagency model for individualizing family services. The six steps of this model are:

1. networking with area agencies to determine interest and desire to collaborate in providing family services
2. surveying area families to identify needs

(3) reporting to each agency with comprehensive and specific findings
(4) identifying gaps in service delivery systems
(5) collaborating in implementation of needed services
(6) conducting ongoing evaluation of program effectiveness with regular meetins to discuss status of services

Practical Application of the Model

In seeking to meet the needs of both young children with handicaps and their families in a rural midwest community, it was evident that a continuum of family services was not available. Recognition of the community's limited family resources was, therefore, a primary impetus in the initial efforts of faculty at Eastern Illinois University to collaborate with local agencies. Faculty identified local agencies which provide services to children and families and established what types of services were being provided. In a way that effort was an informal needs assessment, as the faculty were able to tentatively conclude where some of the gaps in service delivery were. A decision was made to communicatte with all agencies not directly part of the local education agency (LEA).

Several decisions were made prior to contacting area agencies. First, the faculty agreed that no effort would be made to supplant existing services. No judgments were made regarding the quality of currently available services. There would be no effort made to intrude on another agencies' turf. Second, the focus of contact with all agencies would be regarding the needs of children and families. It was acknowledged that additional services could not be predetermined. Thus, in the initial contact with the various agencies, we were not in effect announcing a grand opening and seeking clientele.

Faculty who had had previous contact with local service providers communicated with those agencies. Agencies (i.e., three agencies providing birth to two services and a regional Headstart with 7 classes) were contacted first via telephone and meetings were then arranged to explain the proposed collaborative efforts. In each meeting, the faculty representative recognized the agency's current services and discussed the benefits of collaboration. The faculty person suggested that the university's initial contribution in efforts to individualize family services would be in the gathering and analyzing of child/family needs. Very few rural agencies have the personnel, time, or budget to effectively carry out a comprehensive family needs assessment. In effect, the faculty were offering a valuable service in exchange for access to the information that would ultimately increase the services available to each agencies' clients.

Bailey and Simeonsson (personal communication) assert that family assessment instruments should be ecologically valid (have high relevance to the concerns of the family) and direct (document the values and priorities held by the family). Accordingly, the faculty conferenced with local service providers regarding "A Family Needs Survey" (Bailey & Simeonsson, 1985). Subsequently, slight modifications were made in the scale's format. It was agreed that EIU would provide copies of the needs assessment, a demographic information sheet, and postage sufficient for each agencies needs. The EIU faculty did not establish criteria regarding which families were to be surveyed. Emphasis was placed, however, on the importance of father participation in the needs assessment. Efforts were made to insure that confidentiality of survey participants would be maintained. Each agency was to receive all results specific to their clients, as well as general area needs that were identified.

The surveys are currently being distributed by the various agencies. Upon receipt at EIU, the faculty will begin analyses of the results. It is anticipated that needs of individuals/families can be examined with regard to different ages, family structure, as well as SES and sex of the respondent. After analyses are completed, the next step will be to collaborate with agencies in determining what additional family services are needed by prioritizing family needs. These priority services will then be developed, implemented and evaluated.

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Team Approach to Assessment and Programming:
A Transdisciplinary Model

Introduction

Assessing students with severe handicaps and designing individual education programs that foster functional independence are a challenge no matter what part of the country you are from. Due to the nature of their handicaps, these children often require evaluation and services from multiple disciplines. Usually they have been diagnosed at medical centers in urban settings. These medical professionals are able to tell educators and related service providers what the child can and cannot do, but offer few recommendations about educational programming beyond those of positioning and feeding. In urban areas, teachers can consult with colleagues about students who are difficult to assess and program for. But in rural areas, teachers who serve children with severe handicaps are isolated from each other.

Project TAAP (Team Approach to Assessment and Programming) was funded in 1985 by the U.S. Office of Education, Innovative Programs for Severely Handicapped Children Program to develop a demonstration model for students with severe handicaps and deaf-blindness who live in southwestern Minnesota. A cooperative effort between the Southwest-West Central Educational Cooperative Service Unit (SW-WC ECSU) in Marshall and the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis-St. Paul, this project was designed to increase the number of severely handicapped students being served in integrated, age-appropriate local settings by expanding the capacity of local service providers to cooperatively assess and develop educational intervention strategies.

Project Premises

The Project TAAP model was developed based on several assumptions about rural areas and learners with severe handicaps:

1. Education in the least restrictive environment is the right of all severely handicapped learners. To function fully and appropriately in mainstream school and community environments, severely handicapped individuals must have the adaptive behavior skills to interact with nonhandicapped persons, use community and school programs and care for themselves and their residents.

2. Effective program planning depends on appropriate and continuous assessment of student adaptive behavior needs and progress.

3. Assessment of severely handicapped students requires a holistic transdisciplinary team approach. These teams move beyond traditionally isolated single discipline assessment to collaborative joint assessment in natural environments. That is, the speech clinician might assess language skills and needs in a number of environments, including community training site, classroom settings, occupational therapy sessions, etc. Likewise, the occupational therapist might assess range of motion and spontaneous movements in the same environments, while the psychologist looks at problem solving skills. These three assessments could occur simultaneously, resulting in a more holistic picture of adaptive behavior functioning and a more integrated student program plan.

4. Functional adaptive behavior skills need to be assessed and taught in natural environments. Assessment procedures would include standardized measures of adaptive behavior, criterion-referenced tests and ecological inventories.

5. Instruction in natural environments, which include regular school programs and local communities, will increase the integration and interaction of severely handicapped learners with nonhandicapped persons.

6. As local staff become competent in age-appropriate functional assessment and program planning, fewer severely handicapped students will be sent to other districts for their educational programs, thus promoting education in the least restrictive environment.

The Notion of Transdisciplinary

A major assumption of the TAAP project is that transdisciplinary teaming is crucial for appropriate, comprehensive, and integrated assessment and programming for severely handicapped students. How does transdisciplinary teaming differ from multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary teaming?

The primary distinction between these models is the type and amount of interaction and communication among team members. In the multidisciplinary team, the responsibilities and roles of the team members are clearly defined, but communication is limited. That is, each member conducts their own assessment and needed treatments in isolation from the members of other disciplines.

The interdisciplinary team, on the other hand, frequently meet to plan the assessment, and then each member or discipline conducts his or her own assessment separate from the others. After all assessments have been completed, the team reconvenes to share findings, make recommendations for intervention, and develops a common report. Although more intervention and communication occur among team members, the assessment and treatment may occur in relative isolation from each other, often in separate rooms.

Traditionally in the transdisciplinary team, the respective disciplines, again, are responsible for initial assessments in their own areas. However, during treatment, the roles of most disciplines are "released" to two or more team members, who implement treatment plans across disciplines. The amount of and type of release are determined by such factors as the child's needs, competencies of various team members, practical and logistical realities, and legal prohibitions.

TAAP Model Components

The TAAP model is comprised of two components: assessment and program planning. Effective educational programming for severely handicapped learners requires assessment measures that are sensitive to both the unique needs of the individual and the common demands of the world in which that person lives. There are three types or levels of assessment: diagnostic, educational, and daily performance.

Diagnostic assessment concentrates on current skill level, deficits, and limitations. It generally labels or categorized the child and usually involves standardized tests. Children with severe and profound handicaps have had a lot of this type of assessment prior to being seen by the TAAP team. The problem is how to use this information.

Educational assessment is used to develop educational goals and concentrates on what the student can do. This is the "so now what?" part of assessment. It is this level of assessment that the TAAP team performs. Based on the information gathered through this assessment, individual program plans are developed by the team for each child assessed.

Daily performance assessment involves a task analysis of instructional objectives and a monitoring of performance on those objectives. This is done by the individual service providers after the TAAP assessment.

The TAAP Team

The TAAP assessment is conducted by transdisciplinary teams comprised of service providers from three different levels:

Local School District Team
Building Principal
Special Education Teacher
Parent of the Severely Handicapped Learner
Speech Therapist
Adaptive PE Teacher
Physical Therapist
Social Worker
Nurse

Special Education Coop Team
Special Education Director
Child Study Coordinator
School Psychologist
Occupational Therapist

Regional Team
Vision Consultant
Hearing Consultant
Audiologist

Eight teams have been developed so far through this project. The actual members vary from team to team, depending on available personnel. It should be noted that not every team member is necessarily involved in every assessment (i.e. the vision consultant only participates when the student being assessed has visual problems or if his or her visual abilities are unknown). The exact composition of the team depends on the handicaps and their perceived needs of the child being assessed.

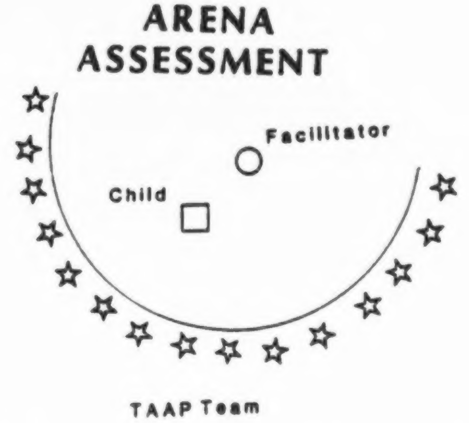
Before the teams actually assess students, they receive inservice training in team building and functional assessment and program planning techniques. These inservices are provided by University of Minnesota and project staff as well as outside consultants. However, the bulk of the training these teams receive is from each other during the actual assessments and planning sessions.

Model Implementation

The project is designed so that each team meets one day each month to test and develop an IEP for one child with severe handicaps in a pilot classroom. A total of eight students per team are assessed over the course of the school year.

The *assessment* is performed using an arena approach.

Figure 1



As the name implies, this approach involves participants and active spectators. A temporary facilitator, generally the team member with the most expertise in the child's area of disability, is assigned prior to the assessment. In some cases this is an outside consultant. As facilitator, this person supervises the whole process, taking primary responsibility for interviewing the parent(s) and orchestrating the assessment. The facilitator works directly with the child, while the rest of the team observes and informally tests the student's functional abilities. The other team members, including the parents, may also work directly with the child or ask the facilitator to try various approaches to determine what visual, physical, auditory, language, and cognitive abilities the child has.

Wolery and Dyk (1985) cite several rationale for using the arena assessment approach in transdisciplinary teaming:

1. it eliminates redundant testing and redundant questions being asked of the parents,

2. it reduces the number of professionals who must handle the child,

3. team members are able to observe the child's performance across a number of areas, not just one or two,

4. team members are allowed to observe and learn from, as well as provide information to, each other, and

5. it should result in more team consensus on treatment needs because each member has observed a similar constellation of behaviors.

After the assessment is completed, the team convenes to *develop the program plan.* The key in the program planning process is identifying current and future environments of the child and the skills he or she needs to participate as independently as possible in those environments. The team must consider home and community environments as well as school environments. For example, the parents of a child with severe handicaps eat at the local restaurant, bowl, and shop at the Red Owl grocery store with regularity. These are all environments in which this student could potentially participate. The team must determine what skills the student needs to increase his or her participation. For younger students, the home is the primary environment. Planning focuses on more basic areas such as toileting, developing a communication system, and cause-effect concepts as they relate to controlling the environment (i.e. activating a switch turns on a tape of favorite music). The older the student is, the more his or her day should be spent learning in community settings. That is, because students with severe handicaps do not transfer skills well from one environment to another, the best place to learn how to order food is in a restaurant, not a simulated work station in a classroom. Likewise, job skills need to be taught at real job settings rather than at school. The most important qualities of the student's program, no matter what the age, are: integration with nonhandicapped peers, instruction in age-appropriate schools, community-referenced goals and instruction, orientation toward future environments, parental involvement, comprehensiveness, and effectiveness.

Program plans are developed together by the entire team based on the results of the arena assessment and any other assessment data available on the child. Objectives are organized by functional domain: community functioning, domestic living (includes self help), vocational, and recreation/leisure.

Community Functioning Domain

One of the most challenging tasks for people involved with special education is to increase the amount of time a severely handicapped individual spends in a normalized life space. As the amount of time spent in a normalized environment increases, the handicapped student's environment becomes less restricted. The curricular domain of Community Functioning is critical to increasing the handicapped student's normalized life space. Sample goals and activities are listed below.

Sample Goals

1. Use restaurants appropriately including ordering, paying for food, and displaying proper table manners.

2. Use community stores for shopping while displaying appropriate behavior involved in locating and paying for items.

3. Shop within grocery stores using shopping lists and grocery carts, locating and paying for items while displaying acceptable behavior.

4. Use community facilities independently.

5. Utilize means of public transportation.

Sample Activities

Preparation for using restaurants:

1. Determine the restaurant to be used.

2. Identify the name of the restaurant (read, verbalize)

3. Identify items of food from the menu (read works, use pictures)

4. Practice ordering with and/or without menus (verbalize and/or use picture booklets)

5. Role play ordering, receiving food, using condiments, buffet style, transporting food, paying bill, receiving change, and tipping (if appropriate).

Domestic Living Domain

All severely handicapped students, regardless of their functioning level, will live somewhere. Consequently, all severely handicapped students need longitudinal educational programs that will prepare them to function as independently as possible in the least restrictive domestic environments.

Domestic Living-Sample Goals

1. Take care of personal needs

2. Plan and prepare nutritious meals

3. Care for clothing

4. Clean and maintain the home

Domestic Living-Sample Activities and Environments

1. Laundry:
    a. Sorting soiled clothes
    b. Operating washer
    c. Operating dryer
    d. Folding clean clothes
    e. Ironing clothes
    f. Putting clothes away

    g. Hanging up perma-press clothes
    h. Sewing on buttons
2. Bathroom:
    a. Cleaning sink/counter
    b. Emptying wastebasket
    c. Sweeping floor
    d. Washing floor

Vocational Domain

In order for adults to function independently, they must be able to financially meet their needs. This implies that individuals need to be vocationally productive in order to be self-sufficient. The Vocational Domain is established with the goal of promoting the economic independence of the student.

Sample Goals

1. Earn and spend money
2. Work alone or with others
3. Display pride in a job well done
4. Work with speed and quality

Sample Activities

1. Demonstrate appropriate job interview behaviors
2. Complete job applications
3. Complete the job with speed
4. Complete the job with accuracy
5. Complete the job with independence
6. Put supplies and equipment away
7. Clean up work area
8. Locate supply area
9. Choose supplies needed
10. Work productively alone
11. Avoid excess and unnecessary verbalizations
12. Work productively with others
13. Demonstrate need for additional supplies

Recreation/Leisure Domain

A large portion of a person's life is spent engaging in recreational and leisure-time activities. For the severely handicapped, the proportion of time spent engaging in recreational activities will probably be greater. Skills in this domain are not innate and must be learned. Large amounts of free time can lead to inappropriate behaviors if recreation and leisure-time skills are lacking. Listed below are some examples of activities that could be included in this domain.

Recreation/Leisure-Sample Activities

Home/Indoors:
1. Listening to the radio
    a. Locate station

  - b. Select appropriate volume

2. Listening to the stereo
   - a. Select appropriate volume
   - b. Select correct speed
   - c. Read album covers
   - d. Placing record on turntable

3. Listening to the tape recorder
   - a. Read tape labels
   - b. Select appropriate volume
   - c. Select appropriate buttons
4. Watching television
   - a. Select station
   - b. Read TV guide
   - c. Select appropriate volume

5. Looking at books
   - a. Use index to find page number

6. Looking at magazines
   - a. Use index to find page number

7. Looking at photo albums

8. Exercising (dancing, movement, walking/jogging)
   - a. Count beats

9. Caring for plants

10. Caring for pets

Specific objectives related to the more traditional areas of communication, motor, academia, and socialization can be easily imbedded into the domains (see figure 2). The time spent in instruction with these students must be well spent, focused, and functional. A good question for teams to ask when looking at an objective or learning activity for a student with severe handicaps is: if the student doesn't do this task will someone have to do it for him or her? If the answer is no, the task is not functional and probably is not good use of the teacher's or the student's time. For example, a student can practice matching colors by sorting socks or grouping blocks. The better choice is the socks sorting: this is a task that someone would need to do for the student if the student does not learn to do it. If the student does not sort blocks into piles according to color, on the other hand, it is not a job that someone else will have to do.

Figure 2

	DOMESTIC	COMMUNITY	RECREATION	VOCATIONAL
Communication	follows directions regarding cleaning, asks what's for dinner	orders at McDonalds	asks for bowling shoes	asking for assistance, directions
Gross Motor	uses vacuum cleaner	walks on uneven sidewalks, getting in and out of vehicles	bowling, swiming, climbs bleachers	lifts and carries tray of dishes
Fine Motor	operates kitchen appliances	uses vending machine	unlocks lock of locker	small part assembly
Academic	sets table using 1:1 correspondence	reads menu, adds items on shopping list	paying for movie, adding bowling scores	signs paycheck, checks in for work
Socialization	plays table tame	gives and returns social greetings	sits through a movie	small talk at break

The team members may use any curriculum (commercial or teacher made) to implement the goals and objectives set forth in the IEP as long as it stresses functional skill acquisition.

Project Findings

At least four things became obvious during the piloting of this transdisciplinary model:

Lesson #1: There is no one right way to implement the TAAP model.

Each team must examine its own needs, child study system and local demands before it can reach consensus as to how that team will function. The process used by the teams will constantly change, responding to children's needs, "political" realities, time and financial constraints, as well as evolve and mature as the team experiments with what works and what doesn't work for them.

There are however, some general decisions that must be made by each team:

- Which day each month will be designated for TAAP assessment and planning?
- Which child will be assessed which month?
- Will consultants be needed for any of these assessments?
- Who will facilitate which assessment?
- What should each team member do to prepare prior to the assessment?
- What are the "rules" for team participation during the assessment?
- Is the district's IEP conducive to transdisciplinary planning and program implementation?
- How can transdisciplinary programming take place in natural environments?

Lesson #2: In order for the assessment to be successful, some are assessment preparation and post assessment analysis on the part of all team members is needed. For example, it may be helpful to:

- prepare the student for what will happen to him or her during the assessment process. This is critical for students with higher cognitive ability. The arena approach may be particularly overwhelming to these students, and the assessment procedure may need to be modified somewhat to garner more accurate results.
- determine the student's current and probable future environment. Think about the environments available in the community for future ecological assessment and student training.
- determine what the student can already do -- things that will be helpful as you try to assess other skills (i.e. range of motion, eye tracking, reading, etc.).
- ask yourself what else you still need to know about the student's functioning to better program for him or her.
- consider how you might go about getting answers to your questions during the assessment and who else on the TAAP team might be able to offer insight on your questions.
- determine what materials you'll need to test the student during the arena assessment.

After the assessment, talk about what you saw, what you know about the student and his or her environments and translate that information into goals and objectives that are:

- functional
- age-appropriate
- in natural environments
- with nonhandicapped persons, and
- implemented by transdisciplinary staff efforts

The arena assessment is only one phase of the assessment process. Instructional goals/objectives/activities will also need to be developed based on ecological inventories and student discrepancy analyses.

Lesson #3: The facilitator has special responsibilities prior, during, and after the assessment and IEP sessions.

Each team will undoubtedly develop its own habits and practices related to the TAAP assessment process. The following list of facilitator duties are suggested as a point of reference in planning for each testing session.

It is the responsibility of the facilitator or his or her designee to:

- talk with any outside consultant coming in to assess the target student so as to ensure both parties understand each other's expectations about the session and to coordinate all activities.
- secure location for the assessment.
- make sure videotapes of the target student have been made (if needed) and that the necessary equipment for viewing them is set up for the TAAP assessment.
- arrange for someone to videotape the TAAP session.

- locate any tests or other materials needed by consultants, if outside consultants are used.
- summarize assessment questions (i.e. what the teams wants to learn during the assessment) at the beginning of testing session.
- review the specific procedure that will be used during the TAAP assessment (e.g. review of concerns, parent interview, videotape review and discussion, direct assessment, discussion of objectives and instructional strategies).
- facilitate the direct assessment of the child, with input and help of the team, unless an outside consultant has been asked to take this role.
- send copies of the IEP goals and objectives to all TAAP members.

Lesson #4: The TAAP model is not for every child or assessment situation.

Most of the students assessed through the TAAP project had already been seen by numerous specialists. It was not the intent of the project to rediagnose those students who have already been evaluated; rather it was to examine the child simultaneously from the varied perspectives represented on the TAAP team, talk about optimal learning strategies, set realistic and functional goals, and brainstorm about possible instructional strategies to reach those goals.

The arena assessment approach is ideally suited for children with severe-profound handicaps, including low intellectual functioning and communication disorders. When students have moderate to high cognitive abilities, serious behavior problems or impulsivity due to a developmental disability, this assessment technique may need to be modified. If you feel that a student will not or cannot tolerate a prolonged testing situation with numerous participants, we recommend that a videotape be made of the child in a variety of settings that illustrate his or her skills, problem areas and typical behavior. This tape would then be used during the initial portion of the assessment day. The team, watching this tape together, could very effectively observe behaviors of concern and current methods of instruction. Questions that remain about the child's abilities or learning strategies could then be addressed directly with the student during an abbreviated arena assessment. This will greatly reduce the amount of time that the child is placed in a potentially stressful situation, as well as ensure that the team's time is well spent.

For older students, the arena assessment may need to be moved into the community; that is, after discussion of current and future environments, (1) the team may split into groups of two or three and spend part of the morning conducting ecological inventories of those environments, (2) return to the school and give the team core subgroup (actual service providers) the inventories, (3) the subgroup takes the child to the environments to conduct discrepancy analyses, (4) and return to the school and reconvene with the entire team to discuss strategies and methods. Videotaping of the student's performance in the environment will facilitate the planning session greatly.

Summary

Local school professionals are often more capable of assessing and programming for students with severe handicaps than they realize. The transdisciplinary team approach developed in the TAAP project provides an exciting alternative for rural districts facing service delivery to students with more severe handicaps for the first time as well as for those dissatisfied with the quality of their current assessment and program planning

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process. Though not for every student, this model is very useful in examining the students who at first look "untestable."

Parents who participated on the teams summed up the payoffs of the model thusly:

"The past IEPs were good, but with more people with different ideas, [they are] better . . ."

"I was glad all those pros were able to discuss and recommend things amongst each other . . ."

"The 'team' feeling lifts some of the 'burden' of pushing my son forward as well as relieving some of the fear of making the 'right next step' . . ."

Two-way Interactive Television Instruction: Comparative Studies of Instructional Effectiveness in Three Rural/Remote Special Education Courses

by

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The transmission of university courses to rural/remote university students via two-way interactive television is relatively new. Very few interactive television courses allow the instructor as well as distance learners to see and hear each other during class sessions. Generally distance learners initiate interactions through dedicated phone lines. Incoming questions and comments from off-campus learners are transmitted from a microphone through a phone line to the on-campus studio classroom. The questions or comments are heard by the instructor through a speaker system in the studio classroom. Instructor responses are then transmitted through the television medium. Rarely would an instructor actually see the distance learners unless he or she were actually able to visit the remote learning sites or have the off-campus learners come to the on-campus class.

For the past four years the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah has transmitted a variety of teacher certification courses through a sophisticated two-way interactive television system. This system is totally interactive in that course instructors as well as distance learners may hear as well as see each other while the instruction is taking place. The on-campus instructor may see only one remote classroom site at time, but the switching from one site to another occurs very rapidly usually within a few seconds. Thus any off-campus student who desires to engage in a discussion or ask a questions is quickly seen not only by the course instructor but also by all of the participants in each of the various sites.

The research dealing with the effectiveness of two-way interactive television is limited (Whittington, 1987). Ellis & Mathis (1985) examined the learning outcomes associated with interactive television instruction. They found that students who had received their instruction through interactive television demonstrated learning outcomes that were equal to those obtained through face to face instruction in traditional learning settings. Additionally student perceptions regarding various aspects of the televised instruction via Instructional Television Fixed Service (ITFS) seem to be relatively positive (Roth, 1980). Participants in the Roth study indicated that they liked the ITFS delivery approach and maintained that they had grown significantly in knowledge.

The potential utility of interactive television for delivering courses to distant learners and teachers in rural/remote areas appears to be very promising (Egan & Sebastian, 1987; Egan & McDonnell, 1987). However, evaluations of interactive television courses have been have been limited in scope (Dirr; 1985, Rollyson, 1984; Whittington, 1987). The primarily focus of past studies dealing with interactive televisions has been the evaluation of learning outcomes related to grades earned in the telecourses and pre and post-test comparisons. The variables that may contribute to effective, two-way interactive, television instruction have not been carefully delineated or analyzed.

The present studies were designed to examine variables that may be influential in not only shaping student outcomes, but also student perceptions about the value of the television instruction. Three different two-way interactive television courses were intensively evaluated. Students in each of the three courses were given the opportunity to evaluate various aspects of the television instruction. The first course was compared to the second and third courses offered. Similarly, the second course was compared to the third. Each previously offered course served as a control for the course that followed. The specific hypotheses for each study were that there would be no significant differences between the control courses and experimental courses on each of the various instructional effectiveness variables that had been selected for investigation.

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects for all of the studies were bachelor's or post-bachelor's certification students enrolled in a teacher certification program in special education. Data regarding a variety of demographic measures were collected on each subject. Table 1 provides a summary of the responses to the demographic survey for each course.

(Please insert Table 1 about here.)

Course Descriptions

The first interactive television course focused on the skills that are needed to develop programs and classroom environments for elementary students with behavior disorders. Student learning outcomes included skills related to identifying, placing, educating and evaluating students with behavior disorders. The second course was basically the same as the first course except that it emphasized strategies and interventions that are primarily used with secondary students with behavior disorders. The last course, Applied Behavior Analysis, focused on the principles and procedures of identifying behaviors for change, collecting and graphing data, arranging consequences for increasing and/or decreasing behaviors, maintaining behavior change and ethically using behavior modification.

Measures and Data Analysis

Several variables were selected for analysis in making comparisons between the courses. These variables included Likert ratings of the following: (1) the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness, (2) the provision of feedback related to student progress, (3) the amount of material covered in each of the courses, (4) the level of difficulty in each course, (5) the organization of the course, (6) the helpfulness of slides, films, and other visual media used during the course. These variables were drawn from two data collection instruments, the Course Evaluation utilized by the Department of Special Education and the Media Services

Evaluation developed by Instructional Media Services at the University of Utah. Data generated from the student and media evaluations were analyzed using a series of two tailed *t* tests. A significance level of .01 was established as a basis for rejecting each hypothesis related to each factor.

PROCEDURES

Distinctive experimental conditions were present in each of the three courses investigated in the studies. The experimental conditions were introduced sequentially and systematically as a function of instructor experience and data generated from previous course and media evaluations. The distinctive properties of the first course were (1) weekly quizzes that were given and immediately scored during the first 30 minutes of each class session; (2) course handouts and support materials that were delivered the day before the class, on the day of the class or late via common carrier; (3) the presence of an on-site facilitator who was primarily responsible for distributing course materials and handouts for the off-campus students, (4) feedback regarding course assignments that was generally delivered several weeks after the assignments had been submitted, and (5) course projects and assignments that were developed without input from the participating distance learners.

The distinguishing features of the second course were: (1) the presence of on-site facilitators whose roles has been expanded beyond that of distributing handouts and quizzes; (2) student participation in selecting course assignments and methods for student evaluation; (3) typical midterms and final examinations rather than weekly quizzes; (4) provision of feedback that was promptly delivered, and (4) the continuation of course support materials that were delivered weekly. The third course was characterized by the following features: (1) intensive involvement of site instructors/facilitators in providing feedback, responding to questions and providing assistance in completing class projects and assignments; (2) weekly quizzes corrected by the site instructors/facilitators accompanied by a midterm and final examination, (3) provision of all student materials at the first class session and (4) instruction that was delivered "face to face" at least once to two of the three off-campus classroom sites during the duration of the course.

RESULTS

The results of each of the three studies will be presented sequentially, that is, the first course will be compared to the second course offered then the first course will be compared to the third course. Lastly, the second course will be compared to the third course. Analysis outcomes will be reported for two variables on the course evaluation and five variables on the instructional media evaluation.

COMPARISONS: COURSES 1 & 2

Course Evaluations. The mean scores for the student evaluation factor, "Overall rating of the instructor's teaching effectiveness," for the first and the second distance learning courses were respectively 5.16 and 5.33. The *t* value for these scores was -0.45. There was no significant difference between these ratings as given by the distance learners enrolled in each of these classes (*p*. = .655). The mean scores for the second factor, "Provision of feedback relating to student progress," was 3.22 for the first course and 5.19 for the second course. The *t* value was -4.64 . A significant difference was established between these two means (*p* = .001).

Instructional Media Evaluations. Two-tailed *t* tests of significance were employed to examine the differences between means on five variables on the instructional media evaluation. The mean ratings for the first variable on the media evaluation, comparison of the interactive television course to a conventional course, were 2.44 for the first course and 2.95 for the second course. No significant difference was established between the two courses on this variable (*t* value of -1.93, *p*. = .06).

The means for the second variable, adequacy of the amount of material covered, for the first course and the second course were respectively 3.64 and 3.35. There was no significant difference between the two courses on this variable.

The means generated for the third variable, "level of difficulty of the course" were 3.88 for the first course and 3.85 for the second course. No significant difference was established between the means on this variable.

The means for the fourth variable, "How well organized was the content of the course?" were 3.05 for the first course and 4.31 for the second course. A significant difference was found in comparing the two courses on this variable (t = -4.37, p = .0001).

Means for the fifth variable, helpfulness of the visual media (slides, films, video tapes, etc.) in supporting the presenter's delivery, were 3.35 for first course and 3.60 for the second course. The two-tailed t test of significance revealed no significant difference between these means (t = -0.69. p = .49).

COMPARISONS: COURSES 1 & 3

Course Evaluations. The mean scores for course evaluation factor one, rating of the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness, for the first and third courses were 5.16 and 5.63. The t value for these scores was -1.54. There was no significant difference (p. = .1302) between the ratings given by the first class and the third class. With regard to the second course evaluation variable, "Provision of feedback relating to student progress," the mean score for the first class was 3.22. The mean scores for the third class was 5.46. There was a significant difference between these two means (t = -5.04, p = .0001)

Instructional Media Evaluation. The mean ratings for the first variable on the media instructional evaluation, comparison of the interactive television course to a conventional course, were 2.44 for the first class and 3.41 for the third class. A significant difference was established between the two classes on this variable (t value of -3.86, p. = .0004).

The means for the second variable, adequacy of the amount of material covered, for the first and third classes were respectively 3.64 and 3.41. There was no significant difference between the two classes on this variable.

Means for the third variable, level of difficulty of course content, were 3.88 for the first class and 4.17 for the third class. No significant difference was established between these two means (t = -1.08, p = .2852)

The means for the fourth variable, course content organization, were 3.05 for the on-campus group and 3.65 for the rural/remote group. No significant difference was found in comparing the two groups on this variable (t = -1.84, p = .0736).

Means for the fifth variable, beneficialness of the text screens in supporting the instructor's delivery, were 3.35 for the first class and 4.24 for the third class. The two-tailed t test of significance revealed a significant difference between the means (t = -3.16, p = .0028).

COMPARISONS: COURSES 2 & 3

Course Evaluations. The mean score for the first course evaluation factor, overall teaching effectiveness, was 5.33 for the second class and 5.63 for the third class. The t value for these scores was -1.23. There was no significant difference (p. = .222) between the ratings given by the second class in comparison to the third class. Means scores for the second variable, provision of feedback, was 5.19 for the second class and 5.46 for the third class. The p value for these means was nonsignificant.

Instructional Media Evaluation. The mean ratings for the first variable on the media evaluation were 2.95 for the second class and 3.41 for the third class. A significant difference was not established between the two groups this variable (t value of -2.14, p. = .0371).

The means for the second variable for the first class and the third class were respectively 3.35 and 3.41. There was no significant difference between the two groups on this variable.

Means for the third variable, level of difficulty of course content, were 3.85 for the second class and 4.17 for the third class. No significant difference was established between these two means.

The means for the fourth variable, course content organization, were 3.65 for the second class and 4.31 for the third class. A significant difference was established on this variable (*t* = -2.80, *p* = .0072).

Means for the fifth variable, beneficialness of the text screens in supporting the instructor's delivery, were 3.60 for the second class and 4.24 for the third class. The two-tailed *t* test of significance revealed no significant difference between the means (*t* = -2.33, *p* = .0241).

DISCUSSION

The studies were designed to carefully compare the changes and differences that occurred over time in the ratings given by distance learners in three separate, two-way interactive television courses. Specifically the investigators were interested in determining the effects of various experimental conditions on these ratings. Each of the previously offered course served as a control for the experimental course, that is, course one was the control for courses two and three. Likewise course two was a control for course three.

Course Evaluation Ratings

The mean ratings (see Figure 1) of the "instructor's overall teaching effectiveness" across the three courses were not significantly influenced by the changes in experimental variables. Improved feedback, increased student input, changes in exam and quiz procedures did not profoundly influence the distance learner's perception of the instructor's teaching effectiveness. The Likert ratings for three courses remained about the same with a slight elevation in the mean rating of the last course. Moreover, the mean ratings for each course were relatively high given the 1-7 range of the Likert scale.

(Please insert Figure 1 about here.)

The "provision of feedback relating to student progress" in the first course was rated as being below average (see Figure 2). However, over time the ratings regarding the provision of feedback improved significantly from course one to course two and from course one to course three. It is difficult to determine which of the experimental conditions in combination or in isolation may account for the changes in learners' perceptions of the feedback that they received. The instructor did attempt to reduce the overall "turn around" time in processing assignments from several weeks to less than seven days. Also, the number and scope of weekly assignments required in the second course was less in comparison to the number required in the first course. Distance learners in the first course completed weekly simulations, and quizzes. The second course was devoid of these particular instructional activities. Weekly quizzes were replaced with a midterm and final examination. Again, great effort was exerted to promptly correct and return midterm exams as well as other course assignments.

(Insert Figure 2 about here please)

The delivery of feedback in the third course was decidedly strengthened through local facilitators/instructors. These were individuals who had completed the course earlier and were certified in special education. Additionally, they were practiced in using the skills and concepts taught in the course. These clinically skilled teachers attended each class session and responded to questions both before and after each televised instructional session. They provided feedback regarding weekly quizzes and other assignments as would be provided in the typical on-campus course. Moreover, distance learners could consult with their local facilitator/instructor during the week in their own community.

Instructional Media Evaluations

Five variables were examined through the instructional media evaluation. However, the analysis revealed only three variables in which the ratings over time improved significantly. The ratings were derived from the following questions: (1) "How would you rate this telecourse compared to a conventional course?" (2) "How well organized was the content of the course?" and (3) "How helpful was it to have slides, films, and other visual media used in the course?"

In courses one and two, the mean ratings for the question, "How would you rate this telecourse to a conventional course?" were below average, the first course more so than the second course offered (see Figure 3). Course three was the only course in which the mean Likert rating exceeded 3.00. In fact, the distance learners rated this course as being significantly better than a conventional course. Again, it is difficult to determine to what extent the various experimental conditions contributed to the significant improvement in the ratings on this variable. However, this course in contract to courses one and two was accompanied by several distinctive experimental features. The first of these was the experience of the instructor and the previous data that had been collected. Using the data gathered and his experience in teaching two other two-way interactive courses, he was able to make some of adjustments, not only in his teaching behavior but in other instructionally relevant areas. Some of these adjustments included the training and utilization of site facilitators/instructors whose roles were described earlier. Courses one and two did not have these support personnel. Also, the distance learners in the third course had a well designed student manual from the very beginning of the course. It contained lecture outlines, handouts, and quiz preparation materials that were carefully correlated with the television instruction. Session materials did not arrive late as was often the case in course one and sometimes in course two. In general the experimental conditions present in the third course were outgrowths of the formative evaluations that were conducted in courses one and two, that is, problems were identified and steps were taken to resolve the problems.

(Insert Figure 3 about here please.)

Significant gains were made over time in the perceptions of distance learners regarding the organization of the instructional content of particularly course three (see Figure 4). It was viewed as being "very well organized." Again these perceptions may have been a function of several interacting experimental conditions. One such condition was the provision of a well designed student manual that was carefully conceived and closely correlated with the content conveyed in each course session. As a rule, the learners in the third course had a clear view as to where the instructor was going in a presentation or lecture and what he intended to have them learn. This was accomplished through the student manual. Each class session was precisely laid out with a lecture outline, study questions, and exam preparation questions Another related factor that was the experience of the instructor. By the third course, he had taught 120 hours using two-way interactive television. Again it is difficult to accurately identify which of the experimental conditions contributed significantly to changes in ratings regarding course organization.

(Insert Figure 4 about here please.)

Only one significant difference was established on the variable dealing with the "helpfulness" of the visual materials in conveying course information and concepts (see Figure 5). This difference was established between course one and course three. Course three received the highest overall mean rating on this variable. Again it is difficult to determine exactly why the perceptions of the two groups are so vastly different on this variable. The number and kinds of media presented in courses one and two were about the same. It may well be that the media in course three corresponded more closely with the content presented through class lectures and other learning activities than did that presented in course one. Further evaluation of this variable is needed before any firm conclusions can be reached.

(Insert Figure 5 about here please.)

Summary

Significant gains were made over time on a variety of variables in the teaching of three two-way interactive television courses. Formative evaluations were successfully utilized to identify areas of concern in the teaching of interactive television courses. Steps were then taken to address these concerns by altering various instructor behaviors, instructional procedures and service delivery systems. Significant changes did occur over time in distance learners' perceptions of the provision of feedback, the value of each course compared to a conventional course, the organization of each course, and the helpfulness of the visual materials that were shown in each course. It is clear that corrective actions can be taken to improve the instruction that is delivered to distance learners through two-way interactive television. Additionally, further research is needed to identify the variables that contribute to successful learning and learner satisfaction through two-way interactive television instruction.

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Table 1

Summary of Professional Experience and Training for each Course

Courses		
1st Course	Regular Educators:	62%
	Years of Teaching in Regular Education	4-5 years
	Years Teaching Special Education	5 years
2nd Course	Regular Educators:	62%
	Years of Teaching in Regular Education	4-5 years
	Years Teaching Special Education	5 years
3rd Course	Regular Educators:	12%
	Years of Teaching in Regular Education	1-2 years
	Years Teaching Special Education	1-2 years

Figure 1. Course Evaluation Ratings of Overall Instuctional Effectiveness Across the Three Courses

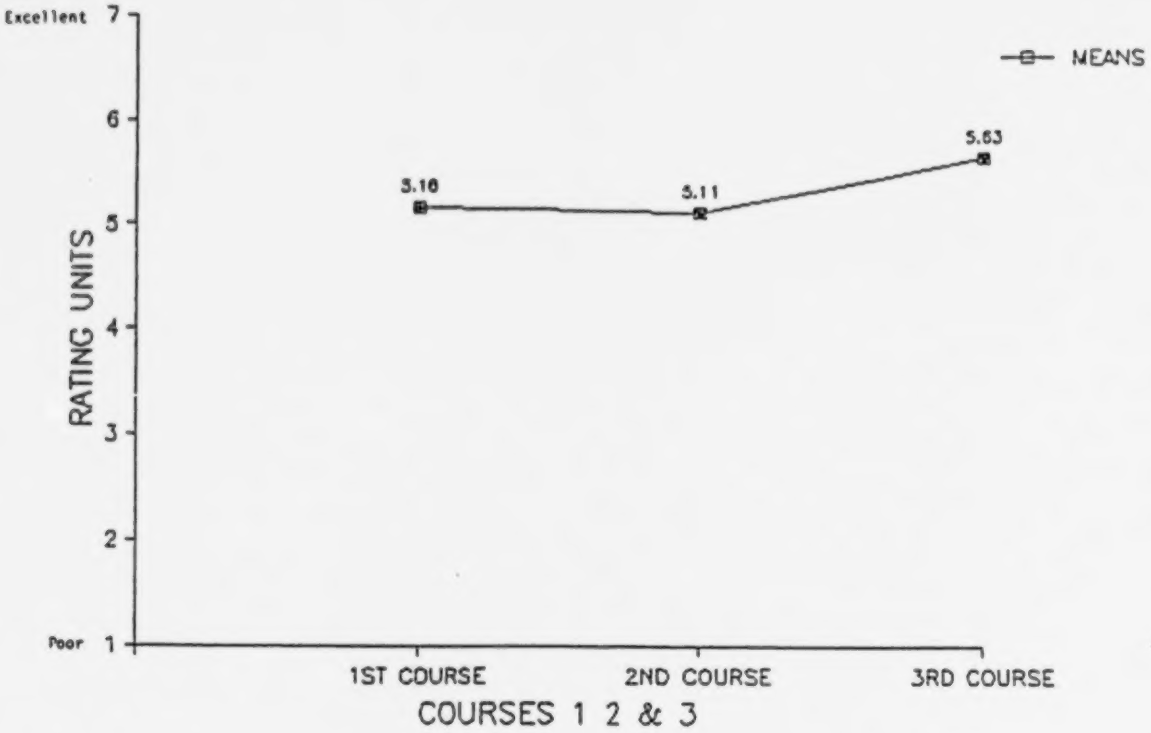


Figure 2. Course Evaluation Ratings of "Provision of Feedback" Across the Three Courses

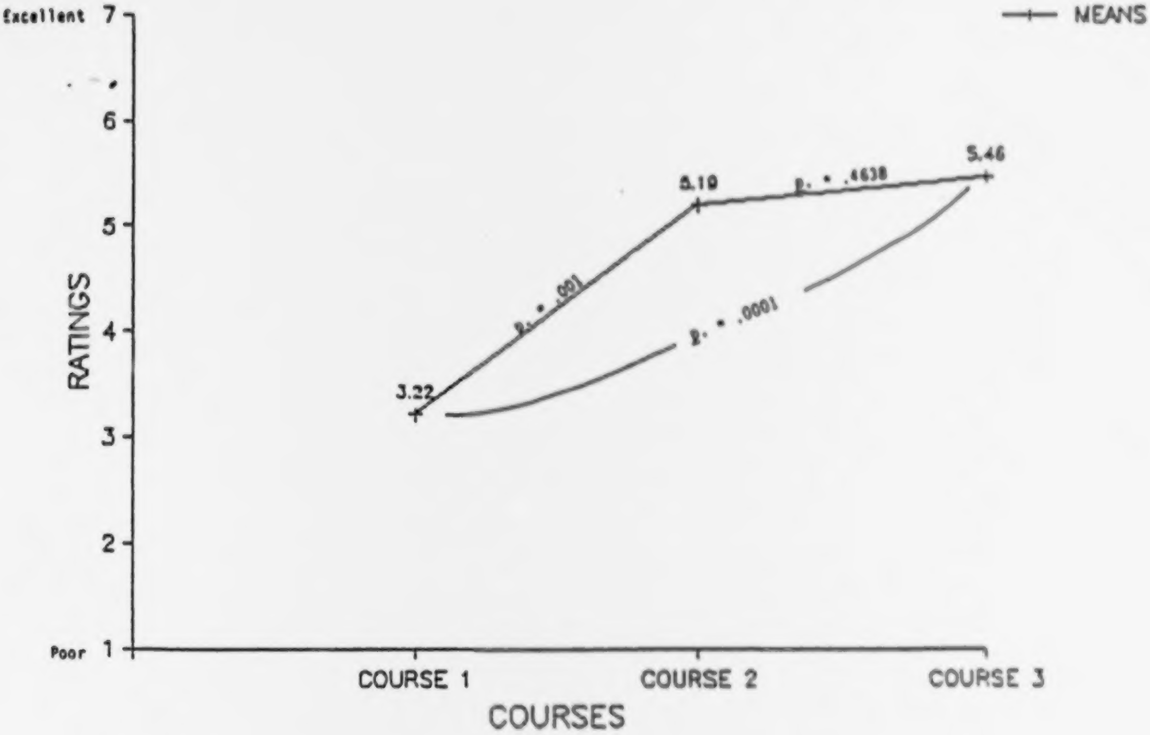


Figure 3. Instructional Media Ratings of "Comparison to a Conventional Course" Across the Three Courses

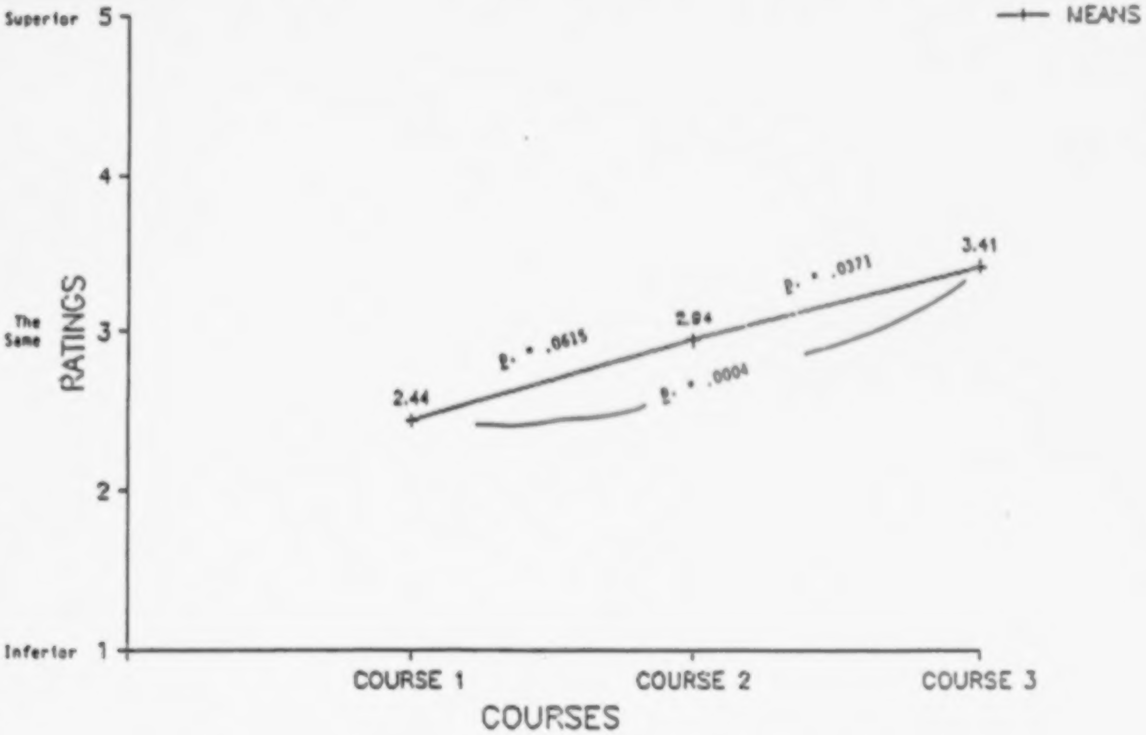


Figure 4. Instructional Media Ratings of "Course Organization" Across the Three Courses

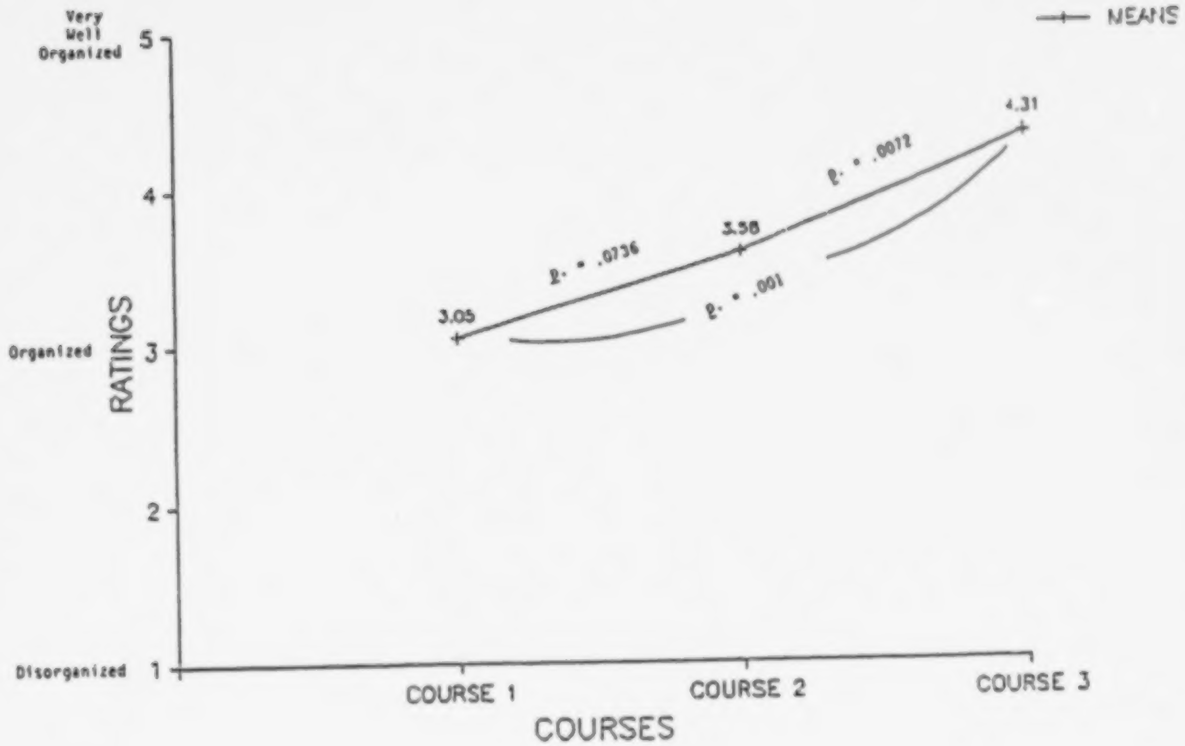
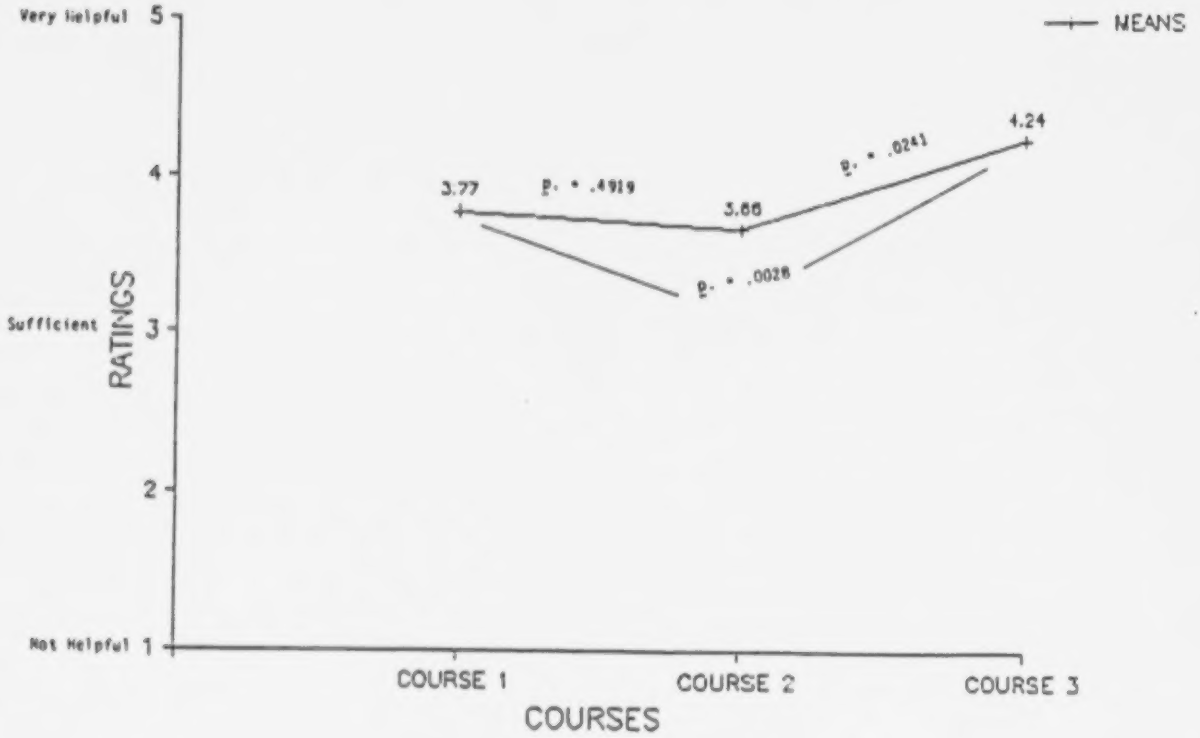


Figure 5. Instructional Media Ratings of "Helpfulness of Visual Materials" Across the Three Courses



CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24

1:00 - 2:00 PM

Robert D. Morrow, Ed.D.
Hugh J. McBride, Ph.D.
University of the Pacific
School of Education
Stockton, CA 95211

Considerations for Educators in Working With Southeast Asian Children and Their Families

Who Are The Southeast Asian Refugees?

The fall of Saigon in April, 1975 marked the end of the United States' prolonged involvement in a war that ravaged the Southeast Asian countries of Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos.

A tragic legacy of the American involvement in the Southeast Asian war is the fate of hundreds of thousands of Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Laotian families who have been adversely affected in many ways: loss of family members; loss of freedom; and mass resettlement, and reeducation of families. To understand their plight all one need do is read the newspaper accounts of the many boat-people who spent years in refugee camps (Philipines, Malaysia, Hong Kong) with little or no hope of reaching a country which will provide freedom and a chance for a better life.

So massive is the world refugee movement that a monthly journal entitled **Refugee** is now published by the United Nations. In it appears story after story of worldwide refugees (many of them Southeast Asians) who seek asylum, freedom from oppression and opportunities for a productive life by immigrating to another country. Among the countries that have reached out to hundreds of thousands of Southeast Asian refugees are Australia, New Zealand, Philipines, France, Canada, and the United States.

Since 1975, the United States has accepted over 800,000 Southeast Asian refugees and offered federal, state, and local public and private agency funding for resettlement programs for these individuals. The bulk of the refugees settled in California, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Washington (California Report, 1980). It should be noted that burgeoning birth rate of the Southeast Asians has raised their population to 1,000,000 since 1975.

Many of the refugees who fled their native land had worked alongside Americans in Southeast Asian countries. Some served in the armed forces under U.S. supervision, while others worked for the U.S. Government. When conditions forced them to seek refuge from their native land, many applied for entry into the United States, France, and Canada. Unlike the latter two countries which accepted primarily wealthy or well-educated refugees, the U.S. generously agreed to re-settle refugees, irrespective of their social class, and employment skills (San Joaquin County Newsletter, 1985).

The term "Southeast Asian" is a descriptor covering several unique and diverse sub-groups, groups with their own history, customs, and values. Among the largest of the refugee groups are: (1) Vietnamese; (2) Cambodian; (3) Lao; and (4) H'Mong. Because of the cultural differences among these people, each one must be treated as a distinct group. Even though these sub-groups share some cultural values, they differ, sometimes significantly, in other areas. For example, marriage customs are markedly different for all sub-groups. When the Vietnamese or H'Mong marry, it is traditional for the newly-married couple to live with the husband's family. In the Cambodian culture, however, it is optional as to which spouse's family the couple will live with. In still another variation, the Lao couple will usually live with the wife's family.

Conspicuous differences exist between the individual national cultures of the several Southeast Asian groups. The differences between the cultural values, folkways, pasttimes of the various segments of the U.S. population and the cultures of Southeast Asians are vast and often diametrically opposed. For example, most Americans tend to be upwardly mobile, driven to be financially independent, materialistically oriented and highly competetive. Individual rights are held as sacrosanct.

In contrast to these values, Southeast Asians tend to live on a day-to-day basis (strongly influenced by the war-related conditions), cooperation as opposed to competition is stressed, and they perceive the family rather than the individual as the basis for societal functioning. Individuals in our society go the extraordinary lengths to bring attention to themselves and their achievements. Amongst Southeast Asians, to call attention to oneself is considered to be offensive as it detracts from the family. Their focus is on teaching children to work harmoniously with one another without singling out any one person for special recognition or credit.

Why Then This Concern About Culture and Cultural Differences?

According to Downs (1975), "cultural behavior" is both consistent and predictable. He states that most of our behavior is learned, not instinctive and that our actions are products of "very complex learning process which developed into a system of symbols shared by a group of humans and transmitted by them to upcoming generations" (p. 45). These symbols, according to Downs, are not a random collection of customs and activities, but rather each culture tends to have some logic of its own that makes the various elements of culture related and interdependent.

Downs futher claims that this system of symbols has certain patterns which can be used to predict cultural behaviors. Thus, one of the keys to predicting human behavior is understanding the components of culture and the cultural value placed on these behaviors as determined by the system.

What is meant by the term "culture" and what are the varous cultural components? For years, anthropologists have debated hundreds of definitions and can not agree on one best definition. Kroeber and Kluckhorn (1952) reviewed some 164 definitions and concluded that "culture" consists of a core of essential traditional ideas along with an attached value system.

In a more simplistic definition of "culture", Linton (1959) states that culture is behavior that human beings learn from their elders and pass on to younger generations in the same culture. In what could be an interpretation of Linton's reference to behavior, Downs (1975) further suggests that culture can be viewed as a "mental map" which provides guidance to individuals in relating to his/her surroundings or other people. Downs cautions that "the idea of a mental map should not be confused with personality which is a special pattern of behavior that each individual possesses" (p. 49). According to Downs (1975), having one's own mental or cultural map, makes it easier to define reality and understand what is appropriate behavior in most situations. A cultural map also sets the rules for resolving problems or explaining events not normally encountered.

In order to help educators better understand the behavior of Southeast Asians as a function of culture, the following specific information is provided.

Family Life

The first loyalty of all Southeast Asians is to the family even above their allegiance to country or religion. The family represents a Southeast Asian's religious, economic, political and social unit. Americans are accustomed to health insurance, unemployment benefits, social security, rest homes, psychiatrists, and many other outside persons or agencies that provide support and assistance to the family. The Southeast Asian, in contrast, relies on his family instead. As a result there is a closeness among family members which is best decribed as a strong bond among all members. The focus is on maintenance and perpetuation of the family as a strong unit under any and all circumstances.

This paper briefly looks at the family, how it is structured, how it functions and some components which are part of this unit. These include child-rearing practices and family relationships.

Infant to Toddler (0-3 years). In contrast to the study of the western child, only a few observers, however, have studied the Southeast Asian child. Chan (1986), one of those observers, notes that infant/toddler childrearing practices among the four Southeast Asian sub-cultures are similar in many aspects, yet some practices vary considerably. He states that there is a significant commonality across ethnic groups with respect to traditional child-rearing practices.

For example, all four Southeast Asian cultural groups view the newborn child as a gift from heaven. The child is believed to be born with an innate potential for good. Nonetheless, parents believe that children must receive proper training in order to realize this potential. Although perceived by the parents as being quite helpless, the young child is provided a great deal of freedom (viewed as highly permissive by Americans), as the child is not held responsible for his actions. Tolerance and permissiveness, then, is commonplace in Southeast Asian parent/child interactions. The tendency is for parents to provide immediate gratification for their infants' early dependency needs. Mothers especially provide close physical contact in many ways (i.e., children usually sleep in the same room or bed with their parents and, in the Cambodian culture, up to age 10). Very young children are not subjected to rigid schedules as parents have different expectations (compared to American standards) in weaning and self-feeding. For example, Vietnamese and Laotian children may breast feed up to two years of age, Cambodian up to three, and H'Mong up to four years old.

All Southeast Asian children throughout the infant and toddler years are provided a safe, nuturant and predictable environment by all family members, providing a solid foundation for the development of strong family ties (Chan, 1986).

Preschool Years (3-5 years). When a Southeast Asian child reaches preschool age he begins to assume greater responsibility for his own behavior. Parents expect him to become more self-sufficient by dressing and grooming himself and assuming responsibility for carrying out assigned chores. Additionally, as the child enters school, he is further trained to become independent within the family as he is included in adult activities such as weddings, funerals, and social and business functions. The preschool child receives early opportunities to learn appropriate patterns of social behavior through active and frequent participation in adult affairs. At this age, parent-child relationships are more formal and adult demands more rigidly enforced (Chan, 1986). Increased discipline replaces the permissiveness and indulgence which the child encountered as an infant or toddler.

For example, parents punish their children for several culturally unacceptable behaviors; disobedience; failure to fulfill primary responsibilities, and aggression (especially sibling-directed). Forms of punishment include either threatening to or temporarily removing a child from the family household (e.g., locking child outside the home), and/or isolating the child from the family social life. Other forms of punishment include the use of shaming, scolding, or guilt induction, resulting in "loss of face" by the child. Children are strongly urged to consider the negative impact of their unacceptable behavior on others. In particular, the parents stress the shame felt by the others when such behavior occurs. Ridicule and rejection are other forms of punishment used to "shape" Southeast Asian children's behavior.

In contrast, some behaviors are highly valued and the preschool child is reinforced for behaviors such as completing chores and academic achievement. However, these behaviors are recognized only indirectly as the child is expected to do well in these areas. According to the parents, the child should not receive rewards for behaviors he is expected to demonstrate. Accomplishments are usually acknowledged in the form of parent encouragement to do even better and strive for higher levels of achievement. This attitude is also reflected in the family discouragement of praising oneself or family members in this presence of non-family members. When a child (or adult) is given a compliment, it is often dismissed or negated by immediate discussion of one's faults through self-deprecating remarks (Chan, 1986). See Table 1 for a summary of child-rearing practices.

TABLE 1: SUMMARY OF CHILD-REARING PRACTICES IN AMERICAN AND SOUTHEAST ASIAN CULTURES

AMERICAN	VIETNAMESE	CAMBODIAN	H'MONG	LAOS
. American children are usually born in a hospital.	In the countryside, Vietnamese prefer a midwife to deliver the child at home. She is often aided by female relatives. (Men, unmarried women, girls and the husband are not to be present.)	Same as Vietnamese.	H'Mong husband delivers the baby with the help of a mid-wife. Then he must stay home at least two or three days to care for wife.	Same as Vietnamese.
. After delivery, women can go anywhere, when able.	(See H'Mong) No time limit for Vietnamese women, but usually she stays in for one (1) week.	She stays home for seven (7) days. After the seventh day, she can go anywhere when able.	After delivery, a woman cannot go to visit relatives or friends. She must stay inside the house for one (1) month.	Same as Vietnamese.
. No such custom. (see H'Mong)	In the country, a woman may deliver at her home.	Same as Vietnamese.	When a girl becomes pregnant, the parents will build a temporary shelter for her outside of her parent's house where she can deliver the baby. During the first month after delivery, she cannot enter any house but must stay in the shelter.	Same as Vietnamese.
. Child is one year old at the end of one year of life.	When a child is born he/she is counted a one (1) year old.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese

AMERICAN	VIETNAMESE	CAMBODIAN	H'MONG	LAOS
Cont.:				
5. Breast fed up to 9 months/1 year.	In general, an infant is breast fed up to two (2) years.	Same as Vietnamese, but up to three (3) years.	Same as Vietnamese, but up to four (4) years.	Same as Vietnamese.
6. Sons and daughters are valued equally.	Sons are valued more than daughters.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
7. Young children have much independence.	Children have to obey and respect their parents and do not have much independence.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
8. Young children are sometimes spoiled.	Young children are strictly disciplined.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.

Family Relationships

Southeast Asian children are taught to view their role within the family and society in terms of relationships and obligations. That is, each child (as well as all family members) must develop a sense of moral obligation and primary loyalty to the family. Therefore, it is imperative that only those behaviors which maintain and enhance the family name and home are valued. Along with this, Chan (1986) cites the "pride and shame" principle whereby individual behavior is said to reflect on the entire family. On the one hand, highly-valued individual academic or occupational achievements promote the family pride, but, on the other hand, negatively-valued behavior (e.g., disobedience, disrespect, shirking responsibilities), results in a collective family shame.

Thus, there is a strict code of conduct expected of all Southeast Asian family members. In contrast to the American emphasis on egocentric behavior, the Southeast Asian child is trained to think of the family first and must learn to subjugate his own personal desires and concerns. Parents, in an attempt to control their children's behavior, appeal to the child's sense of obligation to others.

The picture that emerges of Southeast Asian families is one of the parents being controlling, restrictive and protective of their children. In contrast, American parents foster self-reliance, assertiveness, looking out for "Number One", and expression of feelings, including grief, unhappiness, and other such emotions. With Southeast Asian children, the opposite is true. Children are taught to suppress aggressive behavior, overt expressions of negative emotions, and personal grief. Instead, they must inhibit strong feelings and exercise self-control in order to maintain "family harmony".

Verbal communication between parent and child is typically avoided in Southeast Asian families. Frank discussions (e.g., sexual topics) seldom, if ever, occur in these families. In contrast, American parents constantly strive to keep the communication lines open. No subject is taboo for American parents to discuss with their children. Open, candid discussions of sex are commonplace in American families. Further, Americans openly show affection in public whereas Southeast Asians consider physical contact and public expression of affection embarrasing.

What verbal communication that does take place in the Southeast Asian family is usually one-way; parent to child. When the parent speaks the child is expected to listen. The father is especially "distant" in his communication with his children as he does not generally initiate "talks" with them. Mother-child relationships are often closer, more verbal. Father-mother interaction is usually through indirect communication, inferences, and unstated feelings.

American parents can be characterized as ones who are always widening their circle of friends and acquaintances (e.g., joining clubs, inviting friends over, encouraging their children to "make new friends"). In contrast, Southeast Asian parents appear to distrust "outsiders". One explanation of this seeming lack of trust is that Southeast Asian parents, in an effort to control and protect their children, attempt to restrict their childrens social interaction by allowing access to only "acceptable" role models, such as family members and close friends. This approach is also reflected in the dependence children have on their parents until a relatively late age (by American standards) and the encouragment of even married children to live with their parents. American young men and women, upon marriage are expected to "set up housekeeping" with their spouses outside the parent's home and develop an autonomy that is much different from Southeast Asian young adults.

In an extension of the emphasis on the nuclear family, Southeast Asian families encourage three, four, and, sometimes five, generations to live under one roof. Family size is often very large, ranging from 4-8 children. Large families serve as a source of pride for Southeast Asians. The average American family size seldom exceeds four children.

Another contrasting value is the perception of the male and female roles in Souotheast Asian and American cultures. In the American culture, equality for women, both legally and mentally, has been fostered by society for years. Generally, women in the United States have equal status with men and are treated as equal marriage partners. Both law and recent tradition protect this right of equality.

The male in the Southeast Asian cultures is considered dominant. The Southeast Asian woman is taught first to obey her father, then her husband, and in case of her husband's death, she is expected to obey her eldest son. The Southeast Asian husband is considered "superior" in all matters, legal and marital. The wife is subordinate to and must obey her husband in all circumstances. See Table 2 for a summary of family relationship values.

One unique characteristic of the H'Mong culture is its emphasis on the clan as a social unit. According to Barney (undated), the H'Mong is a patritineal system in which the society is divided into social groups (class) and a child, at birth, automatically becomes a member of his father's clan. The clan serves to interrelate all aspects of the H'Mong culture, including social, political, economic and religious matters.

The basic unit of the clan is the "household" which has a broad interpretation by including all members of the extended family, sometimes 30-40 persons. Clan members refer to one another as "my youngers and olders". Thus, a household may have many houses nearby one another holding all clan members and headed by the eldest male or "householder."

Among the responsibilities of the householder are: (1) to train the children with all household members taking part; (2) maintaining the H'Mong reverence for old age by insisting upon respect for elders; and (3) generally overseeing the day-to-day activities of each household member (Barney, undated).

The clan, as part of the H'Mong culture, is important in matters of marriage and dealing with disputes both within and outside the clan. As all clan members perceive each other as brothers or sisters, it is forbidden for one to marry within his own clan. Should disputes arise inside or outside the clan, the clan leader is looked to for resolutions of the problem. Thus, the H'Mong are not only members of a nuclear and extended family, but they are considered a member of a household and clan as well. Loyalty, therefore is not just to oneself, but also to the other three levels (Vang, 1979).

TABLE 2: SUMMARY OF FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN AMERICAN AND SOUTHEAST ASIAN CULTURES

AMERICAN	VIETNAMESE	CAMBODIAN	H'MONG	LAOS
1. The family relationship is not always close.	It is very close in Vietnam.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese. Clan is the basic social unit.	Same as Vietnamese.
2. Two generations (parents and children) live in a home.	Three or four, some-times five, generations live under one roof.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
3. Often old-aged parents live in a nursing home.	Elders live with children and usually are taken care of by a daughter-in-law or by grandchildren.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Elders prefer to live with their daughters and grandchildren.
4. Grown-up unmarried children live separately and independently.	Children still stay with the parents.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
5. Spouses are considered equal legally and mentally.	The husband is superior and the wife is a subordinate.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
6. Women are independent and have equal legal and marital rights.	Women, in general, must obey their father (when they are young and unmarried, then their husband, then their eldest son (in the case of the death of the husband).	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.
7. Have small families (2-4).	Traditionally, Vietnamese have large families. Small families are now encouraged.	Parents are proud of a large family.	Same as Vietnamese.	Same as Vietnamese.

Impact on U.S. Educational System

The tremendous differences that exist between Southeast Asian and U.S. value systems have caused numerous problems for the Southeast Asian's assimilation into the U.S. school system. According to Bui (1983), those refugees who arrived in 1975 and shortly thereafter "are doing very well in school." This group learned English quickly and many were mainstreamed after only a year or two of learning English as a second language. Bui notes that these children are quite Americanized as they dress like Americans, speak like Americans and do not want to be associated with the "boat people".

In contrast, those refugees who have arrived in the U.S. in the past several years have had a much more difficult time adjusting to the U.S. way of life. A large majority are undereducated or uneducated, especially in the H'Mong and Cambodian groups. Many have spent months, even years in refugee camps, attempting to learn English, suffering from a lack of food, clothing and medicine. Many families were separated as family members were executed or permanently separated by the war. Twenty seven percent of the refugee children have no parents or only one parent in the U.S., (Bui, 1983).

In light of the previous discussion on cultural differences, the following suggestions are offered as a way of assisting teachers and administrators in dealing with Southeast Asian children and their families.

TIPS TO AMERICAN EDUCATORS IN DEALING WITH SOUTHEAST ASIAN STUDENTS

Compiled by

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DO'S	DON'TS
A. Administrators	
- Help Southeast Asian students feel welcome and comfortable.	- Make them feel isolated and strange.
- Employ bilingual staff member if possible.	- Just add any other teacher.
- Use team-teaching method; one bilingual teacher and one monolingual teacher.	- Use traditional and lecture method with one English speaking teacher.
- Use the services of Southeast Asian speaking teacher or teacher aide.	- Just add any one to do the services.
- Develop or search for special instructional materials.	- Use the same instructional materials as the Anglo-American students.
- Develop careful language laboratory for them to practice.	- Ignore that they need extra practice in English.
- Organize in-service training for staff members who are involved in working with them.	- Assume your teachers can deal tactfully and confidently with the Southeast Asian children.
- Have orientation for them and their parents (school policies, classes, extra-curricular activities and so on.)	- Assume that Southeast Asian students are completely Westernized.
- Develop strong community-school-parent cooperation.	- Neglect Southeast Asian parents because they don't speak English.

B. Classroom Teachers

- Use daily and basic English vocabulary in speaking to them.	- Use slang, figurative language or colloquial expressions.
- Use simple and short grammatical structures.	- Use long and complex sentences leading to frustration.
- Speak distinctly, clearly and simply.	- Speak too rapidly and slur the words.
- Speak softly and slowly.	- Scream or speak too fast.
- Give written assignments and important instructions.	- Give homework assignments or crucial instructions orally. Southeast Asian children understand written English better than when it is spoken.
- Use peer group instruction in their native language.	- Separate Southeast Asian students from each other.
- Select willing American students to help them, if possible.	- Assign opposite sex students to help.
- Assign team-work with American students.	- Assign them to work with American opposite sex students.
- Encourage them to seek help whenever they need it.	- Suppose they are self-confident and self-sufficient.
- Teach them English as a second language as soon and rapidly as possible.	- Assume that their English ability is adequate in the classroom situation.
- Use audio-visual aids as much as possible.	- Assume that they understand teachers explanation thoroughly.
- Encourage them to speak up, if possible.	- Push them to speak up if they don't seem ready for it.
- Encourage them to raise questions if possible.	- Push them if their English is not yet good enough.

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Using Peer Coaching, Cooperative Learning and Effective Instruction Strategies to Promote Social Integration and Mainstreaming of Middle School and Junior High Exceptional Students

This paper will describe a staff development and research project designed to promote the mainstreaming and social integration of students with special needs. "Social integration" refers to opportunities for meaningful participation and interaction with nonhandicapped peers, and mainstreaming suggests meaningful participation in academic subject areas with nonhandicapped peers. The project is being conducted in a middle school and junior high school in a rural area of Maine. These schools were selected because of the particular challenges involved with mainstreaming in departmentalized school programs. In such programs teachers tend to be relatively more focused on the subject or content areas they teach than on instructional practices or pedagogy.
About thirty (30) students classified as mildly to moderately handicapped (learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded) have been targeted for increased participation in regular classrooms with nonhandicapped peers.

Interventions are directed at various levels of the school system (e.g., administrators, teachers, parents and students). One aim of the staff development efforts is to impart skills in the areas of cooperative learning and effective instruction in order to improve the quality of instruction for all students.

In this paper we will present an overview of cooperative learning, describe our approach to staff development, and discuss project activities and evaluation procedures.

Cooperative Learning and Effective Instruction

Cooperative learning involves organizing students in small groups to work on academic assignments. Activities are carefully structured for students of varying ability levels. A key feature of cooperative learning is positive interdependence, where students have a real reason to work together in order to accomplish the assigned task. Students are made to feel accountable for contributing to the group's efforts as well as achieving their own individual goals. The "hitchhiking" phenomena, where one student does most of the work and others get a "free ride" is minimized in properly structured cooperative activities. Students are graded partially or entirely on group performance. Teachers provide specific instruction on how to collaborate in a group (e.g., by providing instruction in social skills such as active listening or encouraging others to express ideas). Teachers also spend time monitoring student behaviors, discussing group functioning and providing students with feedback on their performance. The approach to cooperative learning used in the project was based primarily on the work of Drs. David and Roger Johnson from the

University of Minnesota, but aspects of other approaches also were incorporated (e.g., the work of Slavin [1980] and Kagan [1988]).

Extensive research on cooperative learning indicates that in addition to contributing significantly to achievement, students engaged in cooperative learning activities will tend to be friendlier, have more of a group orientation and will learn more from one another. Over fifty studies have been conducted on mainstreaming and cooperative learning. Reviews by Johnson, Johnson and Maruyama (1983) and Slavin (1980) demonstrate positive effects of cooperative learning on handicapped and nonhandicapped students with respect to academic achievement, interpersonal relations, self-esteem, and attitudes toward school.

Cooperative learning activities provide an ideal context for instruction in the mainstream, because they afford opportunities for meaningful social interaction. Embedded in cooperative practices are other effective instruction techniques, such as individualization of instruction, behavioral procedures, direct instruction and mastery learning. In this project, teachers are shown how to utilize these techniques as they conduct cooperative group activities.

The Staff Development Approach

Assumptions. In planning our approach to staff development, a key assumption was that successful mainstreaming requires active communication and cooperation among the regular and special education staff members. In addition, regular classroom teachers must have a repertoire of appropriate strategies for incorporating special education students in class activities.

Prior to the onset of project activities, a staff development survey indicated a strong desire among middle school and junior high teachers for specific teaching methods appropriate for handicapped students in the regular class settings. Previously, mainstreamed special needs students had received mostly remedial/tutorial instruction with a heavy emphasis on individualized instruction. The fifteen teachers who volunteered to participate in the project seemed very receptive to learning about different instructional approaches.

Students. The project involves special education students who are considered to be mildly or moderately handicapped. Students vary considerably in terms of their mainstreaming/social integration needs, ranging from full-time mainstreaming in academic subjects to limited participation in non-academic activities. Regular education students also are involved in the cooperative learning interventions and research and evaluation efforts.

Facilitating Teacher. Staff development activities are designed to have relevance for special and regular education teachers and educational aides. A "facilitating teacher" (holding state certification in special education and regular education) is responsible for overseeing the social integration/mainstreaming efforts. She is released for half-time work on the project. Duties of the facilitating teacher include the following:

1. Reviews records of potential students.
2. Collects data on handicapped and nonhandicapped students.
3. Administers administration of any formal testing.
4. Researches, orders and disseminates articles and materials related to mainstreaming and teaching strategies.
5. Serves as liaison between the University of Maine at Farmington and School Administrative District #11 project participants and administration.
6. Provides consultation to project participants.
7. Provides necessary support to project participants (e.g., short term substituting, demonstrating best practices, assisting in class and collecting or designing materials).
8. Communicates to parents all information related to the project.
9. Assists in organizing and presenting at training sessions.

Peer Coaching and the Teacher Support Group. Encouraging cooperation among teachers is another important goal of this project. As Johnson, Johnson and Holubec (1986) noted:

> For the most part, the teachers participating in the training are the ones who teach each other how to use cooperative learning procedures and who sustain each other's interest in doing so, not the consultants or individuals leading the training. (pp. 88-89)

Monthly seminar meetings for participating teachers and University consultants constitute a teacher support structure aimed at enhancing the practical implementation of cooperative learning techniques. Along with delivering information on cooperative learning and effective instruction, sessions are designed to facilitate sharing of ideas as well as discussion of problems and successes connected with implementing cooperative learning procedures. Every effort has been made to involve teachers in project related decisions (e.g., the format and scheduling of training sessions, deciding what they would like help with). Setting up peer coaching teams within each school is another method used to promote utilization of cooperative learning techniques and create an atmosphere of support among teachers.

Staff Development Activities. To impart skills in conducting cooperative learning activities and using effective instruction techniques, a plan was developed which consisted of monthly seminars with University consultants, the teacher facilitator, and participating teachers; a one day workshop in August; a two day workshop in February at a coastal resort with a nationally renowned expert in cooperative learning, and the ongoing consultative support of the teacher facilitator.

Assessment of the Impact of the Demonstration Model

Program analysis focuses on two major areas: student outcomes and teacher outcomes. Several sources of data contribute to this analysis, including students, parents and families, and the school environment and people in it.

Student Outcomes. Quantitative data on the impact of the program on participants is being collected through interviews, questionnaires, and through direct measurement of skills acquired.

Data collected includes the following:

1. Number and type of referrals to special education.
2. Number of students mainstreamed and degree of mainstreaming.
3. Peer ratings of regular and special education students.
4. Behavioral ratings of special education students.
5. School attendance, suspensions, expulsions, and detentions of special education students.
6. Descriptive information on students (e.g., age, grade, sex, socioeconomic class, etc.).
7. IEP objectives mastered.

Qualitative data on student change is being collected through the use of structured interviews. Information on students' perceptions of various aspects of the classroom "atmosphere" is being obtained through a pre-post questionnaire. Also, the views of regular education students regarding their interactions with special education peers will be obtained.

Teacher Outcomes. Extent of teachers' use of cooperative learning techniques and the effects of peer coaching are being assessed through questionnaires, self-ratings and structured interviews. Peer observations and observations by project staff are used to document skill in implementing procedures. All teachers in the two project schools have completed a survey on mainstreaming that will be repeated at the end of the project year.

An advisory committee (with parental membership, administrative membership, etc.) will provide input to the project's activities and produce information on the social validity of our efforts in terms of how they are valued and the degree of satisfaction with the results.

Conclusion

Effective mainstreaming and social integration of students with special needs entails classroom situations in which regular students and students with special needs have opportunities for meaningful interaction. Cooperative learning situations provide an excellent context for such interactions to occur. When properly implemented, cooperative learning techniques produce improved academic achievement and interpersonal relations among peers.

To impart skills in cooperative learning, a cooperative approach to staff development (including teacher support teams, teacher decision making and peer coaching) is likely to produce the best results. In this paper, a cooperative staff development approach for promoting mainstreaming/social integration was described. Our belief is that it is just as important to build collaborative and supportive relationships among teachers as it is to build collaborative and supportive relationships among students.

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WORKSHOP OUTLINE

STATE, COUNTY, AND LOCAL COLLABORATION: Partners in Serving Special Students in a Rural County

I. SOURCES OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT

A. Federal - Part B-EHA Entitlement Project - Consolidated application from member schools below $7500. Two school districts receiving over $7500 have elected to be members of CCES. Total schools are thirteen.

Vocational Formula Monies for Handicapped and Disadvantaged - P.L. 98-524 - Combined with State County Area Planning to hire a Special Needs Counselor.

Title II P.L. 98-377 - Meeting In-service needs in Math and Science through Arizona School Services Through Educational Technology - A.S.S.E.T. Combined application for all school districts within the County. Allows access to Public TV programs for duplication for school use.

Chemical Substance Abuse Programming - Consolidated application for training of staff and support materials.

B. State - Senate Bill 1077 - Service Programs operated through the Office of the County School Superintendent. A.R.S. 15-376 - financial support from Property taxes within each county. Focus is on meeting special needs of school districts with a total student count of fewer than 600 in such areas as administrative assistance and specialized services. $50,000 plus $4500 for each qualifying school district.

Vocational County Area Planning Monies - Consolidated application for four Districts with High Schools to provide a Special Needs Vocational Counselor.

C. County - Cochise County School Superintendent - Organizational structure for Small School District Services. Focus primarily on Special Education Programs and Support Staff. Twenty out of twenty-four districts have 600 or less A.D.M.

II. EXAMPLES OF SUPPORTIVE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES/SERVICES

A. Support Staff as follows:

Psychological Evaluations - 13 Schools
Special Education Counseling - 13 Schools
Speech Evaluations/Hearing Screenings/On-Going Therapy - 13 Schools
Vocational Assessment/Counseling - 4 Schools
PT/OT/Medical Consultants - 13 Schools
Audiologists - 13 Schools

B. Administrative Support Examples:

Vocational Guidance/Counseling for Special Needs Students - serving 4 High Schools, 119 Special Education and 145 Disadvantaged students. Mandated services include career assessment, IVEP's, curricular modifications, tracking and agency networking.

Chronic Health Conditions Policy - alternative policy prepared by the Education Program Specialist serving Cochise County. A much shortened version meeting all standards!

Pre-School Screening Instrument - P.L. 99-547 - preparation of suggested screening instrument to identify "at risk" children, ages 3-5. Location of an evaluation source for member schools within the Tucson area. Also, an outline of program alternatives to have in place by 1991.

L.R.E. - outline of suggested form and procedures for being in compliance.

III. DIRECTIONS FOR COCHISE COUNTY DELIVERY SYSTEM

A. Networking with existing agencies to meet timelines of pre-school programming.

B. Cooperating with the new State Intermediate District Services to meet needs of Sev/Prof/Multi-handicapped children.

C. Expanding in-service opportunities within the County to include special education staff (such as, Power of Positive Students, Writing Across the Curriculum, etc...)

D. Focusing on communicating the services that exist within each individual school district so all students will profit from our time and knowledge!

IV. PERSONAL/PERSONNEL ASPECTS OF SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATIVE EFFORTS IN A RURAL COUNTY

A. Valuing each district administration, it's board, it's staff, and it's parents.

B. Organizing the essence of each State and Federal Mandate and demonstrating an approach of how to implement within each school district system.

C. Offering both general and special administrative support each small school district.

D. Loving travel, enjoying open spaces, utilizing time to reflect, and naturally flowing with organizational skills!

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January, 1988

COCHISE COUNTY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT
(Tom Campbell)

FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Federal - Part B-EHA
P.L. 98-524 (Voc. Hand/Disad Formula)
Title II
Chemical Substance Abuse

State - Senate Bill 1077
(A.R.S. 15-365 - Small District Service Program)
Vocational County Area Planning

County - County School Superintendent support of in-service

Local - Local Assessment contributions on support services utilized that are not covered by above sources

COCHISE COUNTY EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
(K. Newman)

SUPPORT STAFF:

Psychologists
Speech Pathologists
Audiologist
Social Worker
Counselor
Vocational Counselor
Physical/Occupational Therapists
Medical Evaluations

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

K-3 Basic Improvement Program
S.E. Compliance Monitoring
Pre-school Screening Instrument/Outline of Services - P.L. 99-547
Vocational Standards for Special Needs Students (Assessment/IVEP's/Placement/Tracking)
County Wide In-service
Special Academic Bowl
Chemical Substance Abuse Meetings
Chronic Health Conditions Policy
L.R.E. Form/Procedures

RELATED SERVICES

JTPA Summer Assessment Profiles
Vocational Assessment of Graduates with Vocational Rehabilitation
Vocational County Area Planning Committee
County Film Library
Program Planning with the Juvenile Detention Center
Vocational Articulation - Cochise College and Sierra Vista Public Schools

CCES
January, 1988

Twenty School Districts qualifying in Cochise County are:

		Total A.D.M. May '87	Contracts with OCES for Full Services	Tuitions to Another for Full Services	Vocational Counseling Services only	Admin. Support
1.	Apache Elementary	16.820	X			X
2.	Ash Creek Elementary	45.330	X			X
3.	Benson U.H.S.	365.290			X	X
4.	Bisbee High School	396.260				X
5.	Bowie Unified	113.824	X			X
6.	Cochise Elementary	49.910	X			X
7.	Double Adobe Elementary	82.395	X			X
8.	Elfrida Elementary	173.905	X			X
9.	Forrest Elementary	14.745		X		NA
10.	McNeal Elementary	58.750	X			X
11.	Naco Elementary	308.333	X			X
12.	Palominas Elementary	547.815	X			X
13.	Pearce Elementary	116.340	X			X
14.	Pomerene Elementary	82.055				X
15.	Rucker Elementary	4.052		X		NA
16.	San Simon Unified	103.825	X			X
17.	St. David Unified	371.865	X			X
18.	Tombstone High School	321.970				X
19.	Valley U.H.S.	128.825				X
20.	Willcox High School	378.940			X	X

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MAINSTREAMING THE RESOURCE SPECIALIST

Providing instruction for special needs students in a rural school situation has its own joys and limitations. It also presents challenges for creative solutions.

A number of factors impact upon services available to handicapped students in rural school districts. Specifically: sparcity of population, sensitivity in school and community relationships, vocational and career opportunities, and the need to stretch available resources. This places unique constraints upon decision-making when planning programs and instruction for handicapped pupils.

All special education programs currently face the difficulties of finite resources and the negative impact of the "pull-out" approach. As resources diminish and numbers of students identified with learning difficulties increase, it becomes necessary to consider alternatives to the widely used "pull-out" approach. This has been the predominant strategy for structuring programs to improve the educational attainment of students with special learning needs. "Pull-out" has led to discontinuity and interruption of instruction for teachers as well as fostering categorical attitudes and instruction.

An alternative that has received much attention recently is the collaborative/consultant model. Current research supports the concept that a comprehensive approach, combining the best features of both regular and special education, offers the best chance of overcoming the disjointedness of present categorical programs.

If students with special learning needs are to progress and become fully integrated into regular classes, regular and special education staff must work together to establish new partnerships. Coordinated delivery systems combine methods that have a strong research record of effectiveness with comprehensive systems which have evolved from both programs.

Madeline C. Will, Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation services, U.S. Department of Education, has issued several papers pertaining to a shared responsibility between general and special education. She states that . . ."Beyond failing to provide services for a large number of students who need more intensive instruction, it is also believed that another consequence of the categorical system is the 'tendancy to equate poor performance with a handicap. . . and the stigmatization of students who have been placed in categorical programs'. Often the results are lowered academic and social expectations, on the part of students themselves, as well as their peers and their teachers, which can lead to poor performance and an inability to learn effectively.

Categorical programs frequently address failure, rather than prevention, and professionals who could help correct incipient problems during the early developmemtal stages are prevented from doing so by lack of authorization."

Implementation of the collaborative/consultant model offers exciting and positive possibilities for both students and teachers:

For students: reduction of stigma attached to labeling and pull-out; less disruption of the instructional program; opportunities for understanding and appreciation by both handicapped and non-handicapped students of individual differences; appropriate peer role models; greater opportunity for participation in core curriculum; improved self-esteem; and greater personal independence.

For teachers: shared responsibility for instruction; awareness and understanding of the nature of learning problems and behavior disorders; reduction in duplication of services; reduction in the rate of inappropriate referrals; ability to serve and/or influence more students; opportunities for educators to share their knowledge, techniques, and expertise; a mutual support system; and improved communication.

Belief in the collaborative/consultant model has inspired the special education staff in our district to consider alternatives to the traditional services model.

MENDOCINO UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

We are a small, rural district located along the Northern California coast, approximately 200 miles north of San Francisco. We have a student population of approximately 900 students within a 450 square mile area. Special Education services are available to elementary students at four locations: one K-5 site, two satellite schools, and one alternative/independent study school site. Services for secondary students are provided at our middle school, high school, and community school. Full-time Resource Specialists are responsible for co-ordinating the instruction and support services to our special needs population. Instructional Assistants, a Speech Therapist, an Adapted P.E. teacher, School Nurse, and two School Psychologists are contracted on a part-time basis for DIS, or Designated Instructional Support Services.

STRATEGIES: STUDENT STUDY TEAM, STAFFING, AB 777

Strategies implemented in our district to achieve a more fully integrated special education services model include Student Study Teams at the elementary level, Staffing at the high school level, and California's AB 777, or School-Based Coordination Act.

At our elementary school Student Study Team, or SST, is essentially a regular education staff responsibility that utilizes a team problem-solving approach to assist in the development of strategies for modification of regular education classrooms to better accomodate the student with learning problems. A team was identified and received training in the SERN model. This team consists of: the site administrator, one primary and one intermediate classroom teacher, Resource Specialists, the School Psychologist, the Chapter I teacher, and the parent. The SST meets bi-monthly to review students referred by regular eduction teachers. Students reviewed are not automatically referred for special education assessment. In fact, it is through this process that alternatives to referral may be recommended and implemented prior to referral for assessment. Recommendations are recorded and given to team members. Follow-up assures that recommendations are monitored. This process has created an environment where problem-solving student needs has become a responsibility shared by regular and special education staff and home and school communication is improved. There is also an opportunity for early intervention for students at risk.

Staffing is an intervention strategy that has been effective at the secondary level in assurring classroom modifications prior to referral to special education. The highest priority of each bi-monthly faculty meeting is the discussion of students that teachers have concerns about. A whole- staff problem-solving session generates recommendations which are then recorded by the school secretary. The high school counselor is then responsible for monitoring any action taken on the recommendations and reporting the outcomes at the next staff meeting.

At our alternative high school site the RST participates in weekly staff meetings. In addition to discussing the progress of the mainstreamed RSP students, we are able to Staff any other students teachers are concerned about. This process is particularly effective in a small, rural high school where all teachers, the couselor, and principal can meet regularly.

Adoption of AB 777, California's School Based Coordination Act, allows our schools greater flexibility in management and coordination of categorical programs with continued emphasis on the integration of special needs pupils. It breaks down the categorical barriers to meeting the needs of all students and has facilitated collaborative planning between regular and special education staff. Students can be grouped according to their instructional needs regardless of their label. AB 777 provides that a school may include any one or more of eleven categorical programs in its coordinated school program. If a school includes special education in its coordinated plan, the school must comply with all requirements of special education law and regulations. However there are two significant differences: (1) resource specialist and designated instruction services may be provided to pupils who have not been identified as individuals with exceptional needs; (2) programs for special education students shall be under the direction of special education personnel, but services may be provided entirely by personnel not funded by special education monies, provided that all services specified in the IEP are received by the pupil.

Participation in AB 777 requires that a program plan approved by the local governing board and the local School Site Council be on file, listing the participating categorical programs and contain explicit statements of what the school seeks to accomplish. The school plan must provide for the needs of identified students, staff development, program evaluation, appropriate program expenditures, utilization of other resources, and specify the role and function of the SST as it relates to high-risk pupils.

ELEMENTARY LEVEL

Strategies, paritcularly in the early grades, designed to deliver systematic and organized intervention in the regular classroom can prevent learning difficulties from becoming learning disabilities. By consolidating categorical services, all students receive a broader range of service options with less duplication of services. All students then may have equal access to support personnel, individual tutoring, and modification of curriculum materials.

At the elementary level, concerns about the lack of student progress in our adopted spelling program, Mastery Spelling (SRA), demonstrated the need to consider alternative strategies and materials for spelling instruction at the first and second grade levels.

First grade students usually complete Spelling 'A' in the first grade. However, not all students demonstrate the same level of readiness at the same time. And, many pupils have not developed the skills necessary to proceed on to Spelling 'B'. Making decisions about grouping then becomes a problem.

Meeting with the regular education staff to resolve this issue led to implementation of a collaborative teaching strategy combining the teaching skills of the RST and regular education teacher for spelling instruction.

Following administration of a placement test, students were grouped according to instructional levels. A direct instruction program, Signs for Sounds, was selected for students not ready for Spelling 'B'. This program introduces phonics patterns sequentially, reinforces skills through repetition, and is success oriented.

Teaming the RST and regular education teacher has provided opportunities for demonstration teaching and modeling of instructional skills. Students often fail and learning disabilities are emphasized when the focus of instruction is limited to workbooks, textbooks, and rote memorization. All students participating in the alternative spelling program have been successful as shown by our post-test results.

The success of this collaborative teaching experience has motivated me to consider other areas of instruction where this model could be effective:

(1) This year our Self Study and Quality Review revealed the need to focus upon our school's reading and language arts curriculum. Most learning disability pupils receive reading instruction via a "pull-out" approach. An alternative we have tried is that of assisting classroom teachers and LD students with instruction within the regualr classroom setting.

(2) Adoption of the REAL MATH (Open Court) program this year has begun to change math instruction within the classroom. Regular education staff have received training and in-service in MATH THEIR WAY, EQUALS, and AIMS. Research demonstrates that development of math concepts through a language approach is particularly effective for not only LD students, but for all children. Collaborative teaching could easily be implemented in this subject area.

(3) Computer skills instruction is available to all 4th and 5th grade pupils. Instruction takes place daily for forty-five minutes in the computer lab and emphasizes keyboarding and word processing. These skills are reinforced and supported by the resource staff through computer lab assistance and follow-up activities.

Strategies that support the collaborative/consultant model include: team teaching, demonstration teaching of instructional skills, shared materials, resource teacher in the classroom, flexible grouping of students based on individual needs versus categorical labels, colleague coaching, and cooperative learning techniques.

The role and responsibilities of the Resource Specialist are changing. Identifying teachers who are willing to try alternative teaching strategies and who are supportive of the collaborative teaching philosophy is the first step toward the success of this model.

SECONDARY LEVEL

Basic to Mainstreaming the Resource Specialist at the secondary level is having the same responsibilities for adjunct duties as all other faculty members. The RST is expected to have the same involvement as regular education staff with all students in activities such as supervision of sporting events and chaperoning of school dances.

Because of our high school's Advisorship Program, the RST's are able to control scheduling of students on their case loads. The RST's advisees are students with IEP's. Our Advisorship Program helps eliminate potential stigma for students involved in the Resource Program since ALL students have an advisor. The RST is identified as 'advisor', not 'special education' teacher.

In August, before school begins, a day is devoted to faculty training in: courses available, their prerequisites, graduation requirements, and college entrance requirements. Each high school student has a faculty advisor who is responsible for scheduling and advising. This program relieves the counselor of the burden of scheduling and offers a personal contact for each student and their parents for the duration of the student's high school career.

Over the past five years, Mendocino High School's Resource Program has offered support classes to help learning handicapped students succeed in content area courses. Support classes in World History and Applied Science, usually ninth grade courses, support student success in regular courses and provide remedial instruction of reading, vocabulary, writing and study skills. Support is provided in the form of assisting students in completion of some - not all - homework and preparation for exams. Students receive elective credit for attending support courses. The U.S. History support class taught this year emphasizes study skills for tenth and eleventh graders.

Small groups of learning disabled students receive tutorial instruction in English classes, advanced math and science, and American Government. This instruction is provided by student aides and RSP Instructional Assistants. Both Resource Specialists at the high school are scheduled to teach five of seven daily class periods. Additional responsibilities include providing RSP services at the nearby alternative high school. Instruction in paraphrasing, word identification, and sentence writing, (Strategies Intervention Model, University of Kansas), and remedial math courses are offerred at both sites.

An innovation this year has been that of the RST and history teacher co-teaching a World History class. Planning for this course began last spring when we began putting together the '87-'88 schedule. In an effort to meet more frequently to plan the usual support class, we looked into the possibility of scheduling a common prep period. This led to the idea of replacing the support class with a cooperative teaching model. Since our history teacher is an open, cooperative, dedicated educator, the chances for this venture to be successful were very good.

Having time daily to plan together has been critical to the success of this venture. This class is a regular education history class of 23 students, highly tracked with students having learning difficulties and/or Spanish-speaking students. Because we're in the classroom together, we are able to continually monitor each other's instructional skills, the students' progress, and the materials and activities.

Responsibilities of the history instructor include the teaching of three other sections of World History, two periods of P.E., and coaching the boy's varsity basketball team. We spend l5 - 30 minutes daily adapting curriculum for our third period class. Modifications include: reading the text aloud to the class, instead of assigning it as homework; always reading the exams to the class; and making arrangements for space and monitoring exams for those students who don't finish.

The class is reading *Fahrenheit 451* by Ray Bradbury. We have acquired taped versions of the book from the state's Aural Media Services and Spanish translations from a Los Angeles bookstore. Material is often taught by films, games, and lectures. We co-jointly plan an opening warm-up activity dealing with the current history lesson that includes teaching understanding and recognition of vocabulary; improvement of reading comprehension and study skills; and encouragement of promptness, since this activity always occurs within the first five minutes of class.

In our planning we take nothing for granted. We ask ourselves daily: "What is most important for them to learn from this lesson?" The answer is usually a critical thinking skill, such as: "Find the supporting statements for a generalization or recognition of cause and effect."

According to the history teacher the team-taught class has had an impact upon the teaching of his other classes. He finds that he takes less for granted, assigns homework more thoughtfully, has been able to use many of our opening basic skills activities, and feels less need to cover the history of the world in ten months. "What is most important for them to learn?"

As plans for next year begin to formulate, I anticipate the possibility of co-teaching another class with another teacher. I will continue to inter-act with the history teacher, but more as consultant than as team-teacher, conferencing for the modification of materials and instruction. For the first time the Resource Program will not offer a World History support class. Because our school's philosophy is against tracking students, learning handicapped students will be dispersed throughout various sections of the World History classes. Mainstreaming students having similar strengths and weaknesses in the same classes will facilitate scheduling. For example: non-readers in one section, poor spellers and writers in another, and those with low reading comprehension and vocabulary skills in yet another.

CONCLUSIONS

The goal of the collaborative/consultant model is the education of the exceptional student in the Least Restrictive Environment with achievement equal to that of a "pull-out" program.

Elements critical to the success of this model are: administrative receptivity and support, collaborative planning, shared decision-making among professionals, flexibility, a school climate that supports a process for problem-solving, opportunities for training in these skills, and realistic timelines for implementation.

School programs must find ways to more completely integrate students with special learning needs using all forms of knowledge on how best to proceed with instruction. The collaborative/consultant model of special education is a fresh approach to breaking down the barriers between special and regular education programs and has exciting possibilities in forming partnerships to provide quality education for all children.

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A Starter Manual for the New Jack of All Trades, Parent/Infant Home Visitor

An increasing number of communities are making committments to address the needs of their handicapped and high-risk infants by using a home-based visitor model. In rural communities this often leads to the hiring of "a jack of trades" interventionist who finds him or herself in the position of creating the program. The generalist in this situation needs to have information to meet the challenges in regard to the following issues: individual infant's developmental needs, families' needs for information and support, and management of the process of program development and implementation.

Due to the infancy of this field and the individuality of each family situation and community, the new generalist must call upon his/her own creative skills to invent answers for each new situation that arises. In order to reduce the complexity of implementing a new program, a manual which provides general guidelines and specific resources will be provided. The manual will include baseline information on such categories as: characteristics of populations, procedures for accessing resources, and process for documentation of case management. A practical bibliography of resources will be included.

The presentation will include; 1) an overview of the manual and basis for development, 2) a working discussion, relating participants' own experiences to the application of the manual.

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Transition Team Building: In School and Beyond

As the need for better transition became apparent, we in Wyoming were determined to improve our resource room delivery system and agency referral process to provide more vocational opportunities for handicapped students.

However, our school districts are largely autonomous so it was necessary to involve many people in the planning and program development of services delivered to handicapped students who are preparing for work.

We want to share some of the ways that we helped deliver transition information and skills to our district and then to teachers and agencies in a sparsely populated state--Cheyenne is the capitol and has some 12,200 total students--the largest school system in the state. Most school districts have 500 or less students.

Laramie County School District #1 and the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation developed a partnership to get this process going which included a variety of team building situations. First local and then statewide in-service was held and information on the transition team building concept that follows was disseminated to rural areas through mailings from our district and the University of Wyoming.

HISTORICAL LOOK AT EDUCATION IN WYOMING

In 1867, it was reported to the Dakota Territory Superintendent of Public Instruction that there were in Cheyenne some 200 children between the ages of 5 and 21 and no school facilities. On January 5, 1868, with the temperature a cool 23 degrees below zero, the citizens of Cheyenne dedicated the first school building.

The first school law (in what was now called Wyoming Territory) became effective on December 10, 1869.

What we might call one of our first Vocational Education and Living Skills programs was started in 1875 at the Rectory School House, a private institution for children between ages 6 and 12. At this school, Miss Annie

Delany conducted "a class for little girls in sewing, embroidery, miniature dress making and general deportment."[1]

The residents of Wyoming pioneer communities were so eager for schools they made use of anything available to help provide education and training to their children. One school in the Shell Creek area (North Central Wyoming) opened an abandoned stable where children sat on the manger. A pair of old rubber boots was split open and tacked on the wall for a blackboard.

Cheyenne had the first high school in 1875. By 1940, the State Department of Education had a well established Vocational Education program in many communities. Practical courses were given in Agriculture, Home Economics, Trade and Industry, Rehabilitation and Americanization. Also by 1940, much attention was given in Wyoming to the special education of all classes of handicapped children, including bind, deaf, crippled and mentally retarded.

As you can see, historically, Wyoming schools have done a good job developing programs, especially since achieving statehood in 1890. But modern times call for modern programs. Many of us felt the state was not keeping up with the demands and needs of our population of special needs children.

TRANSITION CONCERNS STATEWIDE

The Division of Vocational Rehabilitation recognized the need and funded the Wyoming Handicapped Youth Transition Employment Project (WHYTEP) in 1984. A survey conducted by this project confirmed the need for what we have called "transition services". It was discovered that a large number of handicapped youth do not make contact with service providers or do not receive services to aid their movement into post high school training, employment and independent living, and many of these same youths end up being placed on waiting lists for adult programs and/or remain dependent unproductive members of society.

In October 1985, the Wyoming Council on Developmental Disabilities, on behalf of WHYTEP distributed a request for proposals addressing the needs identified through the survey. Key to the request was that the proposals needed to be cooperative community demonstration projects, and should include (1) functional curriculum development and implementation; (2) development and implementation of strategies for follow-up and support services; (3) development and implementation of case management. These corresponded to efforts already being made by each separate agency and school, but were efforts and programs which were not being coordinated by these groups.

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[1] Wyoming: A Guide to Histories, Highways and People, Federal Writers Project, University of Nebraska Press, 1981.

A good example of this lack of coordination was the fact that the local school district had a functional curriculum already written (Spring of 1985) and had been planning to implement it soon. The schools were doing some follow-up and support services with employed youth but because of funding problems were not able to do continuous summer follow-up, consequently, employed students lost their support person, who was crucial to their success in the work place during the summer. In addition to this, agencies, such as the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR) have a policy and philosophy of not duplicating services which are seen as being the responsibility of the school. They prefer, and indeed federal regulations support the idea of not finding a person eligible for services unless they are ready and able to participate in training or long term employment. Students are not usually prepared for this--either they do not have the prevocational skills or they need to continue their education, i.e., they are not ready for graduation.

Developmental disabilities facilities in Wyoming, such as Magic City Enterprises and Goodwill of Wyoming, both located in Cheyenne, Wyoming, provide evaluation and work adjustment programs at the request of schools or agencies but the extent is limited by school scheduling and many times is not carried on after the student leaves the school setting through graduation or drop out.

Case management is provided to every client of DVR and most other agencies but many times a student waits until their need is almost desperate or other resources are depleted before applying to community service providers. The agency then may have trouble obtaining the necessary records from the school because of the length of time after graduation or drop out, and must duplicate services that had already been provided--such as vocational evaluations, psychological testing and more work adjustment because the student/client has not retained the skills through lack of practice and/or use. From an economic perspective this is not cost effective to anyone--tax payer, state agency, client or school district.

As stated previously, many persons who would be eligible for community services never contact the agencies. This may be because of pride or lack of information about services. The results of this lack of total communication, cooperation and follow through--even though each individual entity (schools, DVR, community programs) were doing their jobs was often misunderstandings on the part of professionals and a loss to the disabled youth in terms of earning potential, as well as a loss to the tax payer through financial assistance programs and dependency by the youth for extended lengths of time.

THE PROPOSAL: A LARAMIE COUNTY PARTNERSHIP

A cooperative proposal was prepared and submitted to WHYTEP and funded. Participating in the planning and writing of the proposal were Laramie County Community College, Magic City Enterprises, the

Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, the Association for Retarded Citizens, Goodwill of Wyoming (Vocational and Living Skills personnel), School District #1 Special Education and Vocational Education staff, Job Service of Wyoming, (Laramie County office personnel), Community Action, School District #2 of Laramie County, parents, students and employers.

It is important to note at this point that Laramie County may be unique. Those persons who cooperated on the project all have a background of working with the identified age group; have all been in the county for extended periods of time as professionals, all knew each other professionally from previous contacts; and all wanted to see services improved.

The proposal was written in three parts to meet all areas WHYTEP had designated. Included in the first step, IMPLEMENTATION, was the preparation of three video tapes which provided information about vocational options for students, parents, and school personnel. These increased awareness and understanding of the needs for the functional curriculum objectives. The tapes were presented to parents and students and used at in-service for teachers. They were also presented to other agencies and employers to increase awareness of needs and success potentials.

This part of the proposal took a lot of time and energy writing scripts, filming, editing and then scheduling showings and facilitating discussions around the content. It was a combined effort of Vocational Rehabilitation, private agencies, and the schools which carried on the original concept of the grant for community cooperation.

The second step, STRATEGIES, was to fund a school resource specialist to work directly with 1986 graduating students during the summer, to facilitate the transition from school to work. The work study liaison was employed for four weeks in the early summer and one week later in the summer and a special education senior graduating from the University of Wyoming was hired as a job coach.

Students were contacted by telephone, placed in various jobs and JTPA programs, and coordination with employers took place. Of the seventeen graduates, at the end of the summer six were in competitive employment, five in subsidized employment, and four in work training with two students still in the process of being placed.

The job coach was trained using slide presentations from Paul Wehman's program at the Virginia Commonwealth University and visits to local agencies and job sites. One moderately retarded student was coached extensively to learn new tasks, overcome fears, and work on communications skills. Transportation was provided by the job coach for several students using the school van.

A need for follow-up and ongoing case management of this kind was established as graduates would not have maintained or obtained employment throughout the summer without support. The needs of students were apparent in time management--the difference between the school permitting students to be excused after the fact and the need for work supervisors to be informed before the absence or tardiness occurs. Transportation to work is also a problem without any public transport available in the area.

The third part of the proposal, CASE MANAGEMENT, involved continuing to meet with service providers to develop a case manager program using the information during the summer follow-up and to develop a plan to implement for the 86-87 graduates.

Participants investigated case management systems in other disciplines, such as mental health, rehabilitation, residential programs, and reported to the committee as a whole. The findings were: (1) no one agency or school could be totally responsible for transition case management; (2) there was no funding available to establish a new position of case management coordinator; (3) the school district already had coordination potential through the positions of two individuals--the Educational Resource Specialist and the Work-Study Liaison. The primary need was to identify other persons in local agencies who had a vested interest in working with transition and get a commitment from the to spend the time in this cooperative effort--THE TRANSITION TEAM.

The importance of "teaming" cannot be overstressed. A recommended plan for transition case management was presented to the planning committee, discussed and revised. A policy statement including a formal purpose statement and membership plan along with operating procedures was drafted. The design of the plan was to provide services, communication among service providers and follow-up to the client for an unspecified, unlimited, extended period of time.

SPECIAL NEEDS VOCATIONAL ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Teamwork with vocational education and agencies has been facilitated by the district coordinator of vocational education who established an advisory committee in 1979 as required when using federal funds. Numerous in-service for vocational educators and special educators have been held with these federal funds to develop an understanding of the special needs of handicapped students in vocational areas.

With the encouragement of district special education specialists, the advisory committee became more than a rubber stamp but an active partner in improving vocational services to the handicapped. Under the chairmanship of the state EEO officer for the Bureau of Land Management the committee researched accessibility of programs, toured school resource rooms, TMR programs, work study sites, vocational classes for the handicapped, agencies that provided work adjustment, and invited teachers and job coaches to their meetings to tell of their concerns.

These activities made the community aware of how to work in partnership with the schools and caused the Special Needs Vocational Advisory Committee to be selected as the exemplary committee for Wyoming to be given a Presidential citation at a meeting in Washington, D.C.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT TEAMS

With recommendations from the advisory committee made after viewing the videotapes, implementation of the WHYTEP concerns for transition included development of guidelines in the Carl Perkins Act regarding a Career Development Plan. These provided the impetus for a sequence of activities to better prepare students for transition from school to work. A Model Services proposal was written to bring Dr. Tom Modahl from the University of Wisconsin/Stout to provide a seminar to help district teachers and agencies develop procedures for development of the career Plan. Small groups wrote a model IVEP/Career Development Plan format and guidelines and formulated a chart of vocational activities by grade level.

This chart outlines activities our district is trying to implement, beginning in the 7th grade with the enrollment of most handicapped students in regular shop and home economics classes for hands on career exploration. Students may also have other vocational objectives from the Resource Room Curriculum as specified by the Individual Education Plan (IEP).

In implementing the Carl Perkins Act requirement for writing a Career Development Plan for all students we have chosen to do this at age 14 or 9th grade when students are enrolling in high school which begins at 10th grade in our system. Plans are written for all students on an IEP.

All 9th grade students are given the Worker Trait Group Inventory in their social studies classes. Some handicapped students have taken the WRIOT or worked on the "Career Game". As they review the summaries of their chosen interests they begin to think about different traits, education levels, and skills involved in various jobs. It is at this point that we called together a career planning team for writing Career Development Plans/Individual Vocational Employment Plans for each student.

First, background information pertinent to vocational planning was collected on the form. The high school career counselor, the high school special education teacher, the student, his parents, current special education teacher, and transition specialist met to review the interest test, establish a first and second choice for a vocational goal and write goals for classes and training to be achieved in the high school. Specific objectives become part of the student's IEP. Copies of the plan were then placed in the student's cumulative folder, sent to the parent, and available to high school vocational and special education teachers. This makes for a rational basis for class selection at registration.

Conferences with Dr. Modahl assisting participants in developing specific objectives that can be written towards the selected goals on the IVEP were held. A handbook was printed using this information and distributed to all school district special education and vocational rehabilitation personnel in Wyoming.

In 10th grade most Resource Room students match their interests with their abilities by taking the Apticom test individually, or the Goodwill Vocational and Life Skills Evaluation contracted by the school district. The vocational teacher also provides data for assessment of the student's vocational potential.

WORK STUDY TEAMS

In 11th grade vocational skills are to be more specifically developed through activities which might include functional curriculum objectives in work behaviors, vocational classes, and work experiences.

Because of the lack of industry in our area, a mini-vocational class where students learn food service, duplicating and collating, filing skills, and custodial skills has been established. Federal funding also assisted in constructing a greenhouse for the moderately retarded students to raise seedlings to be planted around the schools in the spring and maintained during the summer.

Following the sequence of the K-12 curriculum from prevocational skills and vocational skills in classroom settings, we then placed the students in various jobs and watch them bloom as they gain confidence in a community or school district placement.

Work study Cheyenne style is highly individualized and does not follow a step by step program for each student. One student may start right in on a JTPA community placement, another might try some volunteer internships first. Excellent starter positions have been established through an in-district Student Occupational Service, S.O.S., where students work in the school laundry, graphics, bus garage, libraries, cafeterias, and custodial positions. After a minimal amount of training students are paid $3.50 an hour from district funds.

Teamwork with employers is ongoing. Cafeteria supervisors have participated in an in-service at one of their regular monthly meetings to discuss how to work with handicapped students. Information is given to employers and follow-up of students is frequent. Employers have been very willing to work with students, helping them build the skills and attitudes necessary for successful employment.

Two job coaches hired with Carl Perkins federal funding have been able to train students in both the school and community work sites when needed. They assist with transportation as well, although the district buses can usually take students to and from work during regular hours.

Coordination with various outside agencies may also begin while a student is still in school. The district may contract with a rehabilitation agency to provide work adjustment, training, or sheltered work for part of the student's school day. Vocational rehabilitation may assist with some area that the school district cannot, such as medical costs, and always is available for consultation.

GRADUATION TRANSITION TEAMS

In 12th grade transition planning for after graduation culminates with a formal transition plan. As an ongoing service, all agencies that are involved in transition have been trying to involve the parent in planning through more awareness of options available. This year, they invited parents and students to a luncheon for discussion on services available. One parent commented on how she feels much better after seeing how all of the professional involved are networking to see that services will be given as needed. For so many years, she states, people have told her they didn't know what the future held for her child. Now she has several good choices. It is planned to expand parent involvement by continuing to offer such programs.

Transition meetings are held during the last semester for graduating students. All areas of concern are addressed along with vocational, because a job may not work out if living, transportation, and other needs are not met. The graduation transition team consists of the student, parent, special education teacher, vocational education teachers, job coach or job supervisor, and potential case managers from agencies to be involved after graduation. This one-page transition plan is added to the IVEP/Career Development Plan. Copies will be given to all involved and the parent and students are given a resource booklet on agencies that can be contacted, and advised of the role of the Community Transition Services Team of Laramie County.

CONCLUSION

At the first 9th grade career planning and graduation transition meetings held by the school district, the need for refinement of purpose and direction as well as more specific communication with student and parents at those meetings was clear. The special education teachers who were ultimately responsible had not been as involved as the planning committee. The committee had had several years to mentally prepare for "transition" meetings. The teachers were just beginning.

As implied in the word, "transition" is a dynamic process. This process has been clarified and detailed to the point that all members of the team now feel comfortable and apparently so do students, parents and teachers, in the sharing of information and the importance of the "rite of passage" for the transitional student.

The WHYTEP demonstration project has led to a continuum of services provided in a more timely way, easier access to information and diagnostics, and more successful placements for the disabled youth of Cheyenne and many other areas of Wyoming.

For the first time regular follow-up is being done as the Community Transition Services Team of Laramie County meets every three months to review the cases of graduated students and their transition plans. Members of agencies who are serving these students meet for lunch to do this review with school district resource specialists. Goodwill of Wyoming provides space for the files, sets up the meetings, keeps minutes, etc. They also have temporary funding for a case manager coordinator for the year.

Other efforts are continuing in Laramie County. The district office of Vocational Rehabilitation and School District #1 now have an agreement which addresses and outlines prevocational services, referral procedures, and services for rehabilitation, etc. The DVR agency in Wyoming has developed new policy and procedures for the entire state which facilitates better communication between all schools and the agency.

The transition team building project, "From School to Work" can be likened to building a bridge. Each piece must be firmly in place and the foundation must be strongly planted and welded to the structure. If one part is weak, the bridge will fall and you will be unable to use it to cross from one point to another.

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RURAL TEACHER CERTIFICATION FOR STUDENTS WITH MODERATE AND SEVERE HANDICAPS SERVED IN INTEGRATED SCHOOL PROGRAMS

"Community-referenced Teacher Education in Rural Areas" (CTER)

I. PRESENTATION OVERVIEW

In the fall of 1985 the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah began the development of a model rural field-based certification program for teachers of students with moderate, severe, and /or multiple handicaps. The purpose of the model project is to deliver a pre-service certification program on site in four rural regions of the state. Utah's rural districts experience the same personnel recruitment and retention problems as other regions of the country. (Helge, 1981) The problem is more severe in relationship to finding qualified teachers and specialized support staff for low incidence and severely handicapped students.

The major components of this project were selected to address several of the personnel training needs typically found in rural regions of this state. Utah's rural districts are geographically characterized by vast open spaces interrupted by multiple mountain ranges. Most of these districts are not close to any of the state's institutions of higher education. In order to participate in a certification program, individuals must travel great distances to the nearest college or university campus. Recruiting teachers to work in small rural communities or very remote locations is also a difficult if not impossible task for the local special education directors. The components of this model (Figure 1) speak to the issues of distance and recruitment in the following three major project goals:

1. Rural adjunct faculty are identified and trained by project staff to deliver certification coursework on-site in each of the regions.
2. Course manuals and instructional materials which are congruent with the campus based certification program, and reflect the service needs of rural students with moderate/severe handicaps have been developed for use of the rural adjunct faculty.
3. Certification candidates for the project are recruited from local rural communities.

The certification competencies of this model emphasize the integration of students with moderate to severe handicaps into their community schools. Often, because of the small numbers of these students in rural communities, they are bused to centralized facilities with are staffed cooperatively by several districts. As teachers become trained in strategies that facilitate the integration of students, the service delivery patterns will also need to change. The project staff and department personnel are working with these rural districts to assist them in the development of new programs which allows students to remain in their neighborhood schools. This project, along with several other projects currently being operated by the Department of Special Education, are focusing on systems change strategies in order to assist districts in their response to federal and advocate demands for services in the least restrictive environment.

II. DESCRIPTION OF MODEL COMPONENTS

The Community-referenced Teacher Education in Rural Areas (CTER) project has a three year funding period. Model development activities began early in October of 1985, and the pilot testing phase began in the Spring of 1986 in two regions of the state--the Northeast and the Southeast. The training site in the Northeast region is in Vernal, 175 miles from the university campus; the second site is in Moab, 235 miles away.

Component 1. Selection and Training of rural adjunct faculty.

Two individuals, one each from the Northeast and Southeast regions, were selected to participate in the pilot phase of the project. Selection was based on recommendations from district and regional Special Education directors along with project staff input. Several additional criteria were used in addition to these recommendations. It is important that these individuals be able to provide supervision for the certification candidates during school hours, therefore districts and regional centers must agree to release them for these activities. Both of the individuals selected for the first phase of the project have had successful experiences with moderate and severely handicapped students and are currently serving in supervisory and inservice roles in their districts. During the grant period funds will be provided to the districts in order to purchase time and assistance from the adjunct faculty for model development activities, instruction and supervision.

The rural adjunct faculty role is a key element in the success of this project. Through this position critical communications will be maintained between the rural areas and the university campus. Rural adjunct responsibilities include:

1. Recruitment of potential certification candidates. This may include publicizing information about the project through district and community information networks; providing admissions information for interested candidates; facilitating the admissions process, including administering a test battery; providing initial screening information on candidates.

2. teaching and/or facilitating certification courses on-site. These activities include arranging for the class location and time schedule; informing students of relevant course information each quarter, i.e., cost, location, time; preparing materials; ordering texts and other needed media; registering students and collecting tuition; assisting with and facilitating on location, interactive instructional television courses (or the course offered on video tape); grading students materials; and course evaluations.

3. Liaison with university project staff. This critical activity includes a variety of responsibilities and often is the most difficult.

Phone logs will be kept by both off and on campus individuals. Rural adjunct faculty will come to campus at least once each year for training. Project staff will also travel to each training site at least once each quarter.

This component includes five days of training on campus for the rural adjunct faculty. The training has been developed as part of the model and focuses on "how to" teach university courses, provide practicum supervision, and manage the project off campus.

Component 2. Specialization Course manuals and instructional materials

The specialization sequence for certification in the area of moderate and severe mental retardation/multiple handicaps includes five content courses 3 quarter hours each. The program also requires sixteen quarter hours of practicum with students with moderate to severe handicaps. Certification candidates with limited background and formal instruction in the general area of special education may also need to take additional courses.

Three basic formats are being used in the structuring of the required courses: 1) course will be taught by rural adjunct faculty on site, using the model materials; 2) course will be taught by the campus professor over a live inter-active television network; and 3) a video tape of the course taught by the campus professor will be used. Instructional manuals have been developed for each of the specialization courses. The content of the manuals includes: course calendar, text or required readings, session lecture outlines, discussion topics, course assignment information, grading procedures, and supplemental readings.

The live inter-active video classes represent a unique use of the latest technology available in the state of Utah. A state wide microwave network recently established has allowed this option for broadcasting courses directly from campus. Three of the four rural regions of the state currently are connected to the system. The role of the adjunct instructor for a television course becomes more supportive and facilitative. Activities include leading discussions following the "airing" of the campus class, assisting with assignments, grading papers, and communicating with the on campus instructor.

The sixteen hour of practicum will occur in the certification candidates own classrooms. Because of the shortage of teachers most of the individuals in this program are working full time in special education classrooms on "letters of authorization" from the State Office of Education. The rural adjunct instructor serves as the practicum supervisor and assists candidates with the certification competencies.

Practicum observation procedures are consistent with on campus strategies. A systematic data collection procedure along with a behaviorally anchored rating scale are being used to assist certification candidates in the implementation of new skills. Self evaluations through the use of video tapes will enhance the feedback provided for students.

Component 3. Recruitment and selection of local certification candidates

The model includes the recruitment of local certified teachers for admission into the certification program. The purpose of this strategy is hopefully to reduce the attrition of teachers from rural areas. Local career teachers, already part of their rural community, will more likely remain in their teaching positions.

The rural candidates must comply with all campus admissions procedures. Admission packets have been compiled and distributed to interested individuals by the rural adjunct faculty. Following completion of the admissions packets, rural candidates folders are presented during the regularly scheduled department admissions meeting. All candidates will be screened according to departmental standards.

III. EVALUATION PLANS AND CONCLUSIONS

Evaluation data for this project are being collected from several sources. All of the course manuals and instructional materials will be evaluated by the adjunct faculty and the students. This information will be used to revise these materials prior to the replication of the project in the remaining two rural regions. Quarterly reviews of program progress will be completed by project staff in the process of examining both the content of the courses, the management of the project, and effectiveness of the rural faculty. This information will be used to provide specific support to each of the rural instructors as they implement the program in each region.

Following the grant period there will be in place procedures and trained rural adjunct faculty to continue certification activities as needed by each region. The Department of Special Education is committed to facilitate this effort on an ongoing basis to assist districts in the provision of quality service for students with moderate and severe handicaps.

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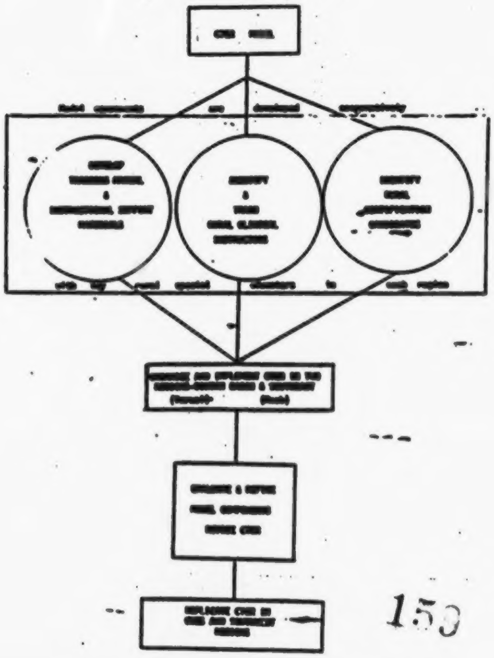
Figure 1



CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24

2:05 - 3:05 PM

HELEN KEMP GAY, Ph.D.
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MAINSTREAMING THE HEARING IMPAIRED IN A RURAL PUBLIC SCHOOL SETTING

The hearing impaired, by virtue of being a low incidence special population, is likely to be inappropriately served, particularly in a rural setting. Unfortunately, these students, particularly those diagnosed as severe to profound, are often directed to institutional settings because of the low incidence of such problems, when it would be more ideal for them to remain at home to receive appropriate services in a community school. This presentation offers an alternative to such problems, not only for students with mild to moderate hearing impairments but those with severe to profound losses.

In the multi-media presentation, much of the information centers around one particular student, Jamie, a profoundly deaf student, who at age three entered the nursery of what was at that time a new program for hearing impaired students in a rural county, to remain in the school setting as a mainstreamed oral student in grades one through six.

The presentation focuses on her services from nursery through grade 6 and will take you through procedures used in her academic and social programming, including techniques used in the resource setting, speech-language therapy, the regular class and extra-curricular activities. This will be depicted both in the video-tape and the slide presentations. The video-tape will feature actual academic work being carried out by the resource teacher and instructional assistant as well as part of a speech-language therapy session. The slide presentation will feature Jamie and other mainstreamed hearing impaired students in various settings in the school over nine years, narrated by her main teacher-advocate to that point in time, at the end of her elementary education.

The information in the video-tape and slide presentation speaks for itself. In review of the video-tape and slide presentation, an overhead listing the important components of a successful program for mainstreaming hearing impaired students will be presented and discussed. They are:

Comprehensive planning and support at administrative levels.

Adequate financial support.

Choice of schools, with appropriate orientation of staff, administration, classroom teachers, counselors, music, art and P. E. teachers.

Selection of special personnel, trained to work with the hearing impaired (resource teachers, instructional assistants, speech-language pathologists, audiologists).

Decisions on methodology.

Purchase of appropriate equipment and materials.

Plan for early identification and infant and pre-school services.

Comprehensive planning and scheduling.

Coordination of services.

Program planning and evaluation.

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EMERGENCY CERTIFCATION IN CALIFORNIA: A VIABLE SOLUTION TO TEACHER SHORTAGES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION?

In 1974, there was a severe shortage of fully credentialed special education teachers in California (Miloksy, 1974). In 1988, 14 years later, there is a continuing need for credentialed special education teachers. To meet the demand for special educators, the State permits the hiring of uncertified personnel in "emergency" situations, as defined by local authorities. In the fiscal year 1985-86, a total of 1,240 Emergency Special Education Credentials were issued by the Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC). The Commission is an agency empowered by the legislature to "establish and promulgate standards and procedures for certifying education personnel as qualified for a license to practice in the public schools of California, and to support, facilitate, and delineate functions and programs of preparation for the teaching profession" (Education Code, Section 44225).

As in other states, emergency certification is the practice of granting certificates to individuals who are employed to teach but who have not fulfilled all the requirements for that credential. Emergency certification is typically granted for a limited period of time and the expectation is that either an individual with the appropriate credential will be hired or the individual granted the emergency certificate will complete the requirements for the credential. In California, there is evidence that emergency certification is offered as more than a temporary solution to the shortage of special education teachers in the State.

Is emergency certification a viable solution to the shortages of special educators? To examine this question, first, the factors that contribute to the continued shortage of special educators in the California will be identified. Second, the extent to which the State relies on emergency personnel to staff special education classrooms will be examined. Third, recommendations to ensure that emergency certification is a "viable' solution to the shortages of special educators will be offered.

Factors that Contribute to the Shortage of Special Educators in the State

Two factors that contribute to the shortage of special educators are: (1) the State's layered credentialing requirements and (2) the availability of Emergency Special Education Credentials.

The Layered Credentialing Requirements in California

In California, the existing credential structure affects the numbers of individuals who pursue the Special Education Credential. To obtain a Clear Special Education Credential in California, a student must first complete a baccalaureate degree program, then an elementary or secondary teaching credential program, and finally a Special Education Credential program. California does not grant baccalaureate degrees in education and since the passage of the Ryan Act (1970), it is not possible to obtain a Clear Special Education Credential as a first teaching credential.

Some of the coursework required in the degree and credential programs may be completed at the undergraduate level. However, a Clear Special Education Credential cannot be obtained in a typical 4-year undergraduate course of study. Rather than delay employment for a year or more to obtain a Clear Special Education Credential, an individual with an elementary or secondary teaching credential may elect to teach in a regular education classroom or in a special education classroom with emergency certification. Teachers with emergency certificates who work full-time in a Special Education classroom are not paid as substitute teachers. Instead, they are placed on the salary schedule with compensation for years of experience and units above the baccalaureate degree.

Undoubtedly, the layered credentialing requirements have affected the number of Special Education personnel prepared by California colleges and universities. While there are no data to suggest that a layered credentialing structure improves instruction to exceptional children, it is likely that the credentialing requirements in California will remain for at least two reasons. For one, questions about the quality of teachers in our nation's schools has led to public support for raising rather than lowering the entry and retention standards for teacher training programs. Indeed, Carnegie Forum's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) has proposed that "the states and higher education institutions should abolish the bachelor's degree in education" (p. 49). For another, changes in the existing credential structure would be difficult. The licensure of teachers is under the control of the State, however, as noted by Haberman (1986):

> In truth, we dont' have state systems for licensing teachers at all. We have district licensing systems. The states tend to license teachers in suburbs and small towns, while urban areas and remote rural areas set up their own alternative certification programs or simply grant emergency licenses as needed. (p. 721)

The Availability of Emergency Special Education Credentials

The layered credentialing requirements in California aggravate a situation in which the demand for special education teachers throughout the State exceeds the supply. The present solution to this shortage of special educators has been the issuance of Emergency Special Education Credentials to districts that document a need.

The California Education Code, Section 44254, authorized the Commission on Teacher Credentialing to issue emergency credentials when "insufficient certified teachers are available." Emergency certification in special education is one of seven (7) types of emergency credentials issued in California. The Emergency Special Education Credential requires the applicant to: (a) possess a California teaching credential, (b) apply to or be admitted to a Commission-approved program, (c) complete at least 6 hours of coursework related to Special Education or have one year experience within the past ten years in the area of specialization, and (d) submit to the Commission a Statement of Need Form. The Statement of Need must be prepared and signed by the county superintendent of schools; it certifies that a fully-credentialed Special Educator is not available and it describes the situation or circumstances that necessitate the hiring of personnel not credentialed for a specific position.

The Emergency Special Education Credential is issued for one year. However, if the applicant has performed satisfactorily at the job, and if the district or county can document the inability to find a fully credentialed special educator, the Emergency Special Education Credential can be renewed. At the time the emergency certificate is submitted for renewal, the applicant must again (a) document formal admittance to a Commission-approved program for the appropriate credential, (b) document the completion of six semester units toward the credential, and (c) submit a Statement of Need. The Commission on Teacher Credentialing does not limit the number of times an Emergency Special Education Credential can be renewed. Therefore, it is possible to teach with an emergency certificate for a number of years. If, for example, only the minimum number of units, six, were completed each year, it could take five years or more to obtain the Clear Special Education Credential.

In California, there are certification requirements mandated of Special Education teachers and as reported by AACTE Task Force on Teacher Education (1984):

> The process of teacher certification suggests that it is possible to distinguish persons who are qualified to teach from those who are not qualifed to do so. When emergency certificates are issued, especially when the practice is widespread, an inference can be made that the process is not as efficacious as commonly thought, that the process is irrelevant, or that the consequences of allowing less than qualified persons to teach are not significant. (p. 23).

There are consequences for "allowing less than qualified personnel" to teach in special education classrooms. Special education is designed to offer specialized instruction to meet the unique needs of the exceptional child. Can an appropriate education, as guaranteed by Public Law 94-142, be provided by personnel with emergency certificates? If the teacher certification process ensures that teachers are adequately prepared to practice the profession of teaching, then the answer is "no."

Current Practices

To what extent does California rely on emergency certified personnel to staff its special education classrooms? Table 1 shows the number of Special Education Credentials, fiscal years 1981-1985, issued in the following categories:

1. Clear Special Education Credentials,
2. Emergency Special Education Credentials (New),
3. Emergency Special Education Credentials (Renewal), and
4. Emergency Special Education Credentials (New + Renewal).

Table 1

Special Education Credentials Issued in California, FY 1981-1985

Fiscal Year	Number of Clear Creds. Issued	Number of Emerg. Cred. (New)		Number of Emerg. Creds. (Renewal)		Total Number of Emerg. Creds. Issued
1981-82	2,460	1,521	+	645	=	2,166
1982-83	2,386	722	+	796	=	1,518
1983-84	1,424	533	+	796	=	1,104
1984-85	1,268	708	+	424	=	1,132
1985-86	1,148	757	+	483	=	1,240

A cursory examination of the number of Emergency Special Education Credentials (New + Renewal) issued since 1981 indicates that the number of emergency certificates issued by the Commission on Teacher Credentialing has declined. However, Table 2 best illustrates the continued reliance on emergency certification to staff Special Education classrooms. In proportion to the number of Clear Special Education Credentials issued in any one year, the total number of Emergency Special Education Credentials remains alarmingly high.

Table 2

Number of Emergency Special Education Credentials Issued for Every 100 Clear Special Education Credentials Issued

Fiscal Year	Emergency Special Education Credentials per 100 Clear Special Education Credentials
1981-82	88
1982-83	64
1983-84	78
1984-85	89
1985-86	108

The data indicate that since 1982, the dependence on emergency certification has increased dramatically. In 1982-83, there were 64 Emergency Special Education Credentials for every 100 Clear Special Education Credentials. In 1985-86, there were 108 Emergency Credentials issued for every 100 Clear Special Education Credentials.

While the Credential Profiles published by CTC report the number and types of credentials during each fiscal year, it does not provide data that: (1) indicate how many teachers with emergency certification go on to obtain the Clear Special Education Credential, or (2) how long it takes for teachers with emergency certification to complete the Clear Special Education Credential. If teachers with emergency certification obtained a Clear Special Education Credential in a "reasonable" amount of time, it could be argued that emergency certification is an appropriate way to staff special education classrooms. If, on the other hand, emergency certificates are issued and renewed for unlimited periods of time, the inference is that the State credentialing process is both irrelevant and insignificant.

In California, the intent of emergency certification may have been to temporarily staff Special Education classrooms. However, as data from FY 1981-1985 indicate, the granting of emergency credentials is offered by the State as more than a temporary solution to the teacher shortages in Special Education.

Recommendations to Ensure that Emergency Certification is a "Viable" Solution to the Shortage of Special Educators

PL 94-142 mandates services to the handicapped. Therefore, when there is a shortage of Special Educators many local educational agencies, particularly those in rural areas, will rely on emergency personnel to staff Special Education classrooms. Emergency certfication is a viable solution to the shortage of certified Special Education teachers in California if emergency personnel completed the required credential in a reasonable amount of time. To ensure that only personnel who have the commitment to seek the Special Education Credential continue to teach with an emergency certificate, the following recommendations are made:

1. The need to include the requirement that only an individual with six (6) units applicable toward a Special Education Credential in a CTC-approved program may be issued an emergency credential.

2. The need to enforce the requirement that only university or college teacher training programs may verify, for the purposes of renewing the emergency certificate, that the required number of units toward the credential has been completed.

3. The need to increase the number of units that must be completed each year from six (6) to twelve (12).

All indications are that the demand for Special Educators in California will continue to exceed the supply. In response to this shortage of fully certified Special Education teachers, emergency certificates are issued by the State. However, emergency certification is in large part controlled by the local districts that request them. The recommended changes in the first issuance and the renewal of the emergency Special Education credential in California are made to mandate greater cooperation among school districts, colleges and universities, and the state licensing agency to ensure that emergency personnel not only "work toward," but complete the requirements for the proper endorsement in less than three (3) years.

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PREPARATION OF PERSONNEL FOR MINORITY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN IN RURAL SETTINGS

The "Training of Ojibwe and non-Native American Teaching Personnel Working With Ojibwe Young Children Having Special Needs" at Bemidji State University, Bemidji, Minnesota, has been in operation since 1986. The Native American population, specifically the Ojibwe people, is the predominant minority of the area and is the focus of this project. This special education: early childhood cross-cultural teacher education project is funded for three years through the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, U.S.Department of Education.

Currently in its second year, the major emphasis of this project has been the training of three different population groups:

1.) non-degreed Native American staff of the Reservation Head Start Programs in areas pertaining to special education: early childhood.
2.) non-Native American personnel who serve Ojibwe special needs children in their programs.
3.) traditional college students currently enrolled in special education: early childhood courses at Bemidji State University.

Situated in north central Minnesota, Bemidji is located within fifty miles of three Ojibwe Indian Reservations (Leech Lake, Red Lake and White Earth) and 125 miles from a fourth (Fond du Lac). This unique situation presents Bemidji State University with a multi-faceted challenge: to prepare practicing teachers and other educational specialists to work with Native American children, particularly those with special needs; to prepare Native Americans for paraprofessioal and professional roles in relation to serving young special needs children; and to prepare traditional on campus students through the infusion of Native American culture into special education: early childhood coursework. Special consideration is given to increasing the effectiveness and sensitivity to the teaching of young Ojibwe children having special needs.

Poverty is widespread in the northern region of Minnesota for both the majority and minority populations. There are more than one in five families existing below the established poverty level. The levels of educational attainment in the area are low, reflecting the prevelence of poverty. In order to counter the effects of poverty and of cultural differences in the education of these young children, there is a need for training non-Native American and Native American teachers to work effectively with Native American special needs children and their families.

EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS – ELEMENTARY EDUCATION – SECONDARY EDUCATION – FIELD EXPERIENCES
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION – SPECIAL EDUCATION – COUNSELOR EDUCATION

"An Equal Opportunity Employer"

A Project Coordinator/Field Instructor with a background in special education: early childhood has been hired to oversee the project. Responsibilities of the coordinator include:

1. supervising internship programs of the Reservations.
2. conducting workshops for Reservation Head Start personnel.
3. organizing in-service training for area special education: early childhood personnel.
4. developing modules for the infusion of Ojibwe culture-awareness in special education: early childhood courses.

1. Through the Cross-Cultural Internship part of the program, ten advanced intern students from the University are teamed with non-degreed Native American teaching personnel from area Reservation Head Start programs. The resulting learning experience is beneficial to both groups. Head Start staff are learning special education strategies, while at the same time, the intern students are becoming sensitized to cultural factors relating to the education of young special needs Ojibwe children. The Head Start programs serve Native American preschool children from ages 3 to 5, with approximately ten percent (10%) being identified as special needs children. Because of the remote location of many Head Start programs, direct special education services are not always readily available. The need for trained paraprofessional and professional staff to work with handicapped young children is acute.

Along with the responsibility of setting up the internships, the Grant Coordinator/Field Instructor makes weekly visits to the programs to meet with the intern students and host teachers. During these on-site visits, the Grant Coordinator/Field Instructor observes each intern student assisting the host staff with day to day activities. The intern students are actively involved in the daily routine, including directing lessons, helping with meals, going on bus routes, and providing specialized programming. As well, the students provide specialized services to the children in the programs diagnosed as having special needs. Discussion and evaluation of the intern's progress also takes place during these visits. The intern student and host teacher meet daily to share ideas regarding lesson planning and preparation for the next day. Through this sharing of ideas, both are gaining insights into how to best meet the needs to the children, particularly those with special needs.

2. The Project Coordinator/Field Instructor is also responsible for conducting a series of workshops for each Reservation Head Start program. These workshops, scheduled once each quarter, cover pertinent special education: early childhood issues. Topic emphasis has been to serve the handicapped child within the context of the family and program.

3. A third responsibility of the Project Coordinator/Field Instructor is to arrange for the in-service training for non-Head Start personnel working with Native American preschool children. This year's in-service training is consisting of three parts: 1.) a conference entitled "Working With Young Special Needs Indian Children and Their Families," held October 2 & 3, 1987; 2.) a follow-up "Case Study Plan" by conference participants which involves a special needs Ojibwe child within their programs, to include a meeting with the Grant Coordinator/Field Instructor to review progress; 3.) attendance at a one day "Wrap-Up" meeting in the spring. The participants will meet on the campus of Bemidji State University to discuss their experiences; what worked, what did not, and make any recommendations they may have for others. Based on the experiences and information gathered from the participants, a guidebook for working with young special needs Native American children and their families will be compiled.

4. The fourth portion of this grant involves the training of traditional college students who are enrolled in the special education: early childhood program on Native American culture. The Project Coordinator/Field Instructor with a

consultant has developed modules which incorporate Native American-related materials into the curriculum. The purpose of these modules is two-fold: they give college students the background to work effectively with Native American preschoolers and their families. The modules also provide hands-on activities for use in the classroom and in the home.

The plan for year Three of this project is a continuation of year Two. The training model featuring the cross-cultural internships, workshops, and in-service and pre-service training will be continued, but with two minor adjustments. First, the Project Coordinator/Field Instructor will assemble various prepared culture based materials to be used in on-campus special education: early childhood courses and in workshops. These materials will supplement the modules already developed. Second, the in-service conference will address the handling of specific handicapping conditions faced by young children within the Native American family. While last fall's conference gave the participants vital information relating to Native American culture, the need in year Three is for a more detailed service approach.

As the training project unfolds, evaluations and revisions are being made to accomodate individual and program needs. It is tailored for the specific population, the Native American and non-Native American people of northern Minnesota. The overall response has been positive and we look forward to year Three.

The following is a sample section of one of the modules developed through the project:

ED 306/506 Issues in Special Education: Early Childhood in Northern Minnesota

Objectives

The materials presented will help the student to:

1. consider the historical impact on the education of Indian children.
2. enhance their understanding of contemporary lifestyles of the Native American population.
3. recognize prevailing stereotypes of Indian people and develop racial awareness.
4. understand the need for multi-cultural education in their own curriculum.

Objective 1

To help the student to consider the historical impact on the education of Indian children.

Studying the historical background of Native Americans provides significant insight into the trials and tribulations superimposed on Indian people in their struggle to survive in the education of their children and to maintain their culture. A timeline entitled, "Indian Education Backgound Including Legislation" is included as a basis for examination of the transitions Indian people have made. This timeline includes Time Immemorial in which the Indian people had one hundred percent sovereignty prior to the arrival of the colonists up to the Self-Determination Period, which some thoughts on today's educational focus. It takes you through the Treaty, Reservation, Allotment, Reorganization, Termination, and Self-Determination Periods in history. By carefully studying this timeline, you will discover what Indian people have experienced.

Also reading pages 29-38 in Indian Families In Transition you will gain more insight into the historical background that affected Indian people and the education of their children.

There is a course offered at Bemidji State University (ED 301) called

"Education And The American Indian Child" which is recommended for educators. This course is designed to provide Ojibwe and other Indian students relevant materials about their cultural heritage and all students a vehicle to develop a better understanding and appreciation of Indian history, language and culture.

Indian Education Background Including Legislation

Time Immemorial was in the beginning when the Indians had total control over the education of their children. This was mostly done before the age of 10 because by 10 they were involved with adult things. The elders did most of the teaching through example and talks. The children were separated (boys and girls). Legends were told (moral, musing, historical). Sometimes tests of manhood were done by sending them to bed without food to encourage visions. Offerings the next day were food or charcoal. If they chose charcoal, they were thought to show great promise - special - leadership qualities. Chippewas were a very quiet group not allowing babies to cry so they couldn't notify enemies of where they were.

TREATY PERIOD

Time Immemorial - 100% sovereignty
1492 - Colonists appeared; wanted to Christianize the Indians; show them a better way.
1787 - Constitution
1789 - Northwest Ordinance; as more moved in, land was very important and education became less important to them.
1794 - First Indian treaty providing for education (7 Stat. 47-48).
1802 - Act "to promote civilization among the aborigines" (2 Stat. 139, 143).
1803 - Treaty with Kaskaskia Indians providing for instruction in literature (7 Stat. 78-79).
Executive Order - tribes could go directly to the president.
1819 - CIVILIZATION ACT establishing an annual fund of $10,000 for education of the frontier tribes (3 Stat. 516); was passed to make the Indians "civilized" people. First reference to Indian Education.
1824 - U.S. Office of Indian Affairs established and placed with the War Department (3 Stat. 679).
1830 - Indian Removal Act to transfer eastern tribes to territory west of the Mississippi River (4 Stat. 411).
1832 - Office of Commissioner of Indian Affairs created (4 Stat. 546). Defined Indian tribes or nations as distinct independent political entities. Justice Marshall decision.
1834 - Office of Indian Affairs reorganized as a Department (4 Stat. 735-738). Proliferation of boarding schools; mostly did work; schools were self-sufficient.
1836 - The Indians were declared wards of the government. They must be protected and educated in industry, the Christian ways and clothed until they are able to sustain themselves.
1849 - Department of the Interior created and the renamed Office of Indian Affairs transferred to this jurisdiction (9 Stat. 395).
1860 - First Federal boarding school established on the Yakima Reservation, Washington (Indian Education, 423).
1867 - Amendment XIV excludes "Indians not taxed" from Congressional representation (Constitution).
1869 - Congress authorized the President to appoint a ten-member Board of Indian Commissioners (16 Stat. 40).

1870 - FIRST GENERAL APPROPRIATION ACT for Indian education providing a fund of $100,000 (16 Stat. 490).

1871 - Act ending Federal-Indian treaties and the independence of the Indian Tribes (16 Stat. 544, 566).
1873 - Act repealing the Civilization Act fund (17 Stat. 437, 461).

RESERVATION PERIOD

1879 - Captian Richard H. Pratt founded Carlisle Indian School - the first non-reservation boarding school (Indian Education, 423)

Cessation of treaty making during the Reservation Period

1882 - Act providing for the education of 100 Indian pupils in industrial schools and for the appointment of an Inspector or Superintendent of Indian Schools (22 Stat. 68, 70).
1885 - Major Crimes Act. U.S. took away the control Indian people had to hold trials for their own people.
1886 - Act requiring instruction on the dangers of alcohol and narcotics (24 Stat. 69).

1887 - DAWES SEVERALTY ACT (Allotment Act) was meant to break up the tribes so that Indian people would be less unified. Each member was given 80 acres with the surplus sold and the monies were supposedly put in a fund for education. The Indian people lost 90 million acres. Some of the reasoning behind that was to turn Indian people into farmers, caretakers of their own land and thus "more productive".
1888 - Act appointing a Superintendent of Indian Schools, and defining his duties (25 Stat. 238-239).
1890 - First codification of rules for Indian Schools, and first Indian pupils received in public schools (Annual Report, Commissioner, 1890 p. cxlvi-cix).

ALLOTMENT PERIOD

1891 - First act imposing compulsory education on Indians of school age (26 Stat. 1014).
1893 - Act authorizing the withholding of rations from Indians failing to send their children to school (27 Stat. 628, 635).
1894 - First act establishing per capita rate allowances for Indian pupils, and declaring children of Indians taking lands in severalty not excluded from educational benefits (28 Stat. 308, 311).
1895 - Act announcing the government's intention to phase out contract schools (28 Stat. 904-906).
1896 - First act declaring government policy to end appropriations to sectarian schools (29 Stat. 345). Act also prohibited removal of Indian children to another state without written consent of parents (29 Stat. 348).
1897 - Act prohibiting further appropriations for sectarian schools except in special cases (30 Stat. 62, 79).
1906 - Burke Act to limit selling of lands by Indian owners (34 Stat. 182-183).
Competancy Act - perhaps the most devastating acts affecting the self-image of Indian people. This act declared the Secretary of Interior in charge of deciding whether or not an Indian person was "competant". Full-blooded Indian people were not considered competant and their lands were taken away and held in trust.
Act authorizing distribution of rations to mission schools for Indian pupils (34 Stat. 326).

1908 - Act repeating per capita rate limits for boarding schools receiving Federal subsidies (35 Stat. 72).

1909 - Act providing for transportation of pupils under 14 years at government expense (35 Stat. 783).

1910 - Act repealing per capita rates for non-reservation Indian schools (37 Stat. 520).

1912 - First act providing paid education leave of 15 days for Bureau teachers attending training institutes (37 Stat. 519).

1917 - Act ending Federal subsidies to religious groups (39 Stat. 988).

1918 - Act restricting Federal educational services to children of one quarter or more Indian blood (40 Stat. 564).

1919 - Act revising upward per capita allowances (41 Stat. 6).

1920 - Act recapitulating compulsory education policy, and limiting tuition allowance to public schools (41 Stat. 410-411).

1921 - Act defining minimum attendance for day schools (42 Stat. 562).

1924 - SNYDER CITIZENSHIP ACT conferring citizenship on all Indians not previously U.S. Citizens (43 Stat. 253). This is considered by many Indian people as a terrible thing to have happened because it said that Indian people are U.S. citizens and no longer have a nation.

1925 - Act revising upward per capita allowances for Indian pupils (43 Stat. 958).

ALLOTMENT PERIOD

1928 - Meriam Report on survey of Federal Indian administration (authorized in 1926). This report was the most comprehensive and significant reports on Indian Education. Conclusions of the report were:
1) Indians were excluded from management of their own affairs
2) Indians were receiving poor quality of services from individuals who were suppose to be meeting their needs
Act authorizing extension of teachers' educational leaves to 60 days on alternate years (45 Stat. 493).

1929 - Act authorizing State officers to inspect schools in Indian territory within State boundaries (45 Stat. 1185).
Act repealing per capita allowance limits for Indian pupils (45 Stat. 1534).
Act setting minimum attendance limits for Federal Indian schools (45 Stat. 1576).

1931 - Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education.

1933 - Board of Indian Commissioners dissolved.

1934 - Johnson O'Malley Act providing for assumption of responsibility for Indians by the States (48 Stat. 596).
INDIAN REORGANIZATION ACT, or Wheeler-Howard Act, ending the allotment policy and introducing an Indian-oriented policy (48 Stat. 984).
The Meriam Report and the New Deal presented many innovative ideas for Indian Education but World Was II came along and many of these great programs were pushed aside.

REORGANIZATION PERIOD

1938 - Act establishing a revolving loan fund for worthy Indian youths (52 Stat. 303). (Loans discontinued by administration in 1952).

1946 - Peterson Report "How Well Are Indian Children Educated?" Results:
1928 8% at or above grade level
1946 38% at or above grade level

1928 27% below 5 years behind
1846 4% below 5 years behind

1946 - "It is probable that the more systematically organized program of
cont. instruction, keyed to Indian needs, accounts in large part for this clear-cut superiority."

1950 - Public Laws 815 and 874 amended to include Indians with Federal impact area students (64 Stat. 967-978, 1100-1109).

TERMINATION PERIOD

1953 - Public Law 47 providing for transfer of Federal Indian school property to local school districts (67 Stat. 41).
HOUSE CONCURRENT RESOLUTION 108 enunciated government policy of termination of special Federal provisions for Indians (67 Stat. B132).
They were trying to get the Indians off the Reservations (assimilation) and into the working force. They offered incentive programs which are still available today. They'll pay moving expenses, a few months rent, buy uniforms or shoes if needed for their new job, etc.

1956 - Senate Joint Resolution 110 (P.L. 702) authorizing investigation of Indian education (70 Stat. 531-532).
Adult Vocational Training Act (P.L. 959) providing free relocation skill training for disadvantaged adults, including Indians (70 Stat. 986).

1957 - Act providing for conveyance of Federal school properties to public schools or public agencies (71 Stat. 29).
Act modifying teacher educational leaves of absence (71 Stat. 282).

1963 - Act conveying Federal school properties to local school districts or public agencies amended (76 Stat. 33).

1965 - Economic Opportunity Act (P.L. 452) to combat poverty, specially applicable to Indians (78 Stat. 508-520).
Indian Education Act (Title IV PL92-318) signed by Nixon has several parts to it making the Indians more in control of education.

- Part A - concerned public school and tribal school funding
- Part B - enrichment programs (culture and bilinguial ed.)
- Part C - adult Indian education

SELF-DETERMINATION PERIOD

Kennedy's report done in the 70's really put down boarding schools and the poor job done on Indian education. It sharply criticized that the Indians weren't in control. Gerald Ford signed the Indian Self-Determination and Education Act (1975).

The Indian Education Act, Indian Self-Determination and Education Act, and the AIPRC (American Indian Policy Review Committee) were the three most important acts in establishing Indian control of education. This illustrated that the web of control (congress, etc. was (si) finally being broken down.

Indian Language and Cultural education act is Minnesota legislation used to supplement the present JOM and Title IV funds. It's for cultural developement. There's more of a push (has been in the 70's especially) for more culturally oriented materials to be taught to the Indian children.

Objective 1 Task

Read "Custer Died For Your Sins". Combine the information presented in the book with the timeline and reading in Indian Families In Transition (pages 29 - 38). Write a reaction paper to the materials read.

View the film "How The West Was Won and Honor Lost". Discuss treaties, Indian Removal Act, Trail of Tears, Indians giving up way of life.

View "Indian American" Parts I, II, and III. Discuss treaties, spirituality, dances, legends, right to vote, reservations, termination, disease, suicide, and alcoholism.

Invite an instructor from the Indian Studies department to speak about the topic, Education And The American Indian Child. Prepare questions to ask from the background reading you've done on the subject.

Read "Night Flying Woman" by Ignatia Broker. Outline her educational background.

After examining the timeline and reading in Indian Families In Transition describe how your feelings may or may not have changed in relationship to the education of Indian children.

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COOPERATIVE AGREEMENTS FOR SPECIAL PROGRAMS: TWO MODELS THAT WORK!

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the development and advantages and disadvantages of two models for cooperative agreements between school districts and universities for operation of special programs. These creative agreements allow for delivery of service to students who could not otherwise be served, for example, gifted and talented students in small schools. The models to be discussed have been used at two universities, one urban and one suburban, with several districts, some urban and some rural. A discussion of what has been learned may be of benefit to other districts or universities who are considering a cooperative agreement or exploring other cooperative relationships.

MODEL ONE

Educational programming for the gifted student receives much attention in this country and is mainly perceived as a responsibility assigned to school district administrators and teachers. The first program described in this paper was developed at the University of Portland for the Secondary Teacher Education program and was developed to satisfy the needs of the University, local schools, and gifted secondary school students.

The University of Portland is a private, liberal arts institution with four professional schools serving approximately 2800 students located in the northern section of Portland, Oregon. The School of Education is a relatively small school offering programs at the baccalaureate and master's levels. The mission of the School is to prepare teachers in an individualized, personalized environment. The program has a heavy field experience component and close ties with local schools are a necessity as well as a privilege. As a result of this close relationship, local school administrators often contact the University faculty for special assistance to enable them to meet the needs of their students. The program described in this paper began with such a request.

The mentorship program at the University of Portland was developed to meet the following needs: to provide a field experience for senior methods students, to provide computer-assisted-instruction and gifted education experiences for seniors, to conduct a cooperative service project with local schools, and to conduct a project to enhance education for local gifted students.

Upon realization of these needs, it was decided that a review of the literature was in order.

Review of the Literature

The primary concern was preparation of senior teacher education students during the semester immediately prior to student teaching. A review of the literature reinforced the belief in the need for teachers to be proficient and comfortable with microcomputers. For example, Thompson wrote that "...if teachers are to encourage their students to use the computer as a thinking tool, they must be able to use the computer themselves" (1985, p. 54). Many others concur that the ability to program is key to developing a sense of control and mastery over the computer. Culp wrote, "With programming knowledge comes direct communication with the computer. With this communication comes the ability to control the system and translate the creative ideas of teachers into materials that have been designed and developed to meet their needs as they 'know' them--not as others perceive or attempt to anticipate them" (1986, p. 41).

A review of the literature related to gifted students using computers showed that it is important to develop a variety of techniques, some to be used especially with gifted students when incorporating computers into instruction. A study at Indiana University concluded that "Different strategies may need to be developed to advance gifted students' design and technical abilities, such as the use of subroutines. In addition, teachers need to be highly organized but flexible and allow for spontaneous as well as planned programming, provide for individual instruction due to differences in skills and aesthetic development, and use peer instruction and problem-solving...." (Stokrocki, 1986, p. 47). In addition to the variety of skill levels, Stokrocki found that gifted students exhibit other characteristics which must be attended to by their teachers. "Advanced students sometimes lag because of their over-confidence, over-reliance, or other emotional issues and periods of regression and resistance" (1986, p. 47).

The concept of mentoring for the gifted has also received much attention in the recent professional literature. Renzulli published the Enrichment Triad Model (1977) and stated that gifted students should be given tasks rooted in real problems and should be allowed to pursue them in depth. He also suggested that they be given the chance to present their findings to a real audience. Runions found that enrichment programming is often viewed by students as "...entertainment or time off, with little continuity toward other learning experiences...." (1982, p. 7). The advantages of mentor programs, according to Runions, are that "Every mentor is a learner, as every learner is a mentor" (1982, p. 35). He went on to caution that the mentor should be viewed as such and not as "...another teacher or official evaluator" (1982, p. 35).

Development of the Program

After reviewing the needs and pertinent literature, the program began to take shape. Three basic assumptions, based on Renzulli's Enrichment Triad Model, formed the foundation of the program design:

> Gifted students demonstrate greater persistence than other students.
>
> Gifted students should have the opportunity to pursue real problems in depth and to present results of that pursuit to a real audience.
>
> All students need experience with higher level thinking skills, problem-solving activities, and creative/productive thinking skills.

It was decided to develop a mentorship experience for local middle school gifted students, with University secondary teacher education senior students serving as mentors. The focus was to task each team with development of a computer-assisted-instruction software program using middle school level content. The product would then be distributed for use among the middle schools in the area and the team of partners would be available to give inservice training on the use of their program.

The following steps were followed to arrange the experience:

1. Senior secondary education methods students who had some computer background and wanted to do a field experience with gifted students were identified.

2. Local school district administrators (middle schools) were contacted and asked to identify students who could benefit from the program.

3. A contract form was developed.

4. The University supervisor and school principals met to match students with mentors.

5. An initial meeting between mentor and student was set up.

6. A project description, objectives, timetables, and materials list were developed and presented to the University supervisor and building principal.

7. The contract was developed and signed. (A copy of the contract form is appended.)

In developing the relationship between the mentor and the student, the following information adapted from Runions (1982) was found to be very useful:

Conditions for Effective Mentoring:

> A program rooted in experiential learning -- intensive and extensive.
>
> Careful selection and matching of participants.
>
> Open-ended learning.
>
> Competency-based learning, measured by successful completion of the task, mastery of techniques, and ability to structure problems and solve them.

Keys to Successful Mentoring:

Mentors expect students to:

Have a total learning experience, with equal energy to doing and thinking.

Be ready to try, experiment, and explore.

Give feedback on learning so that the mentor can give perspective, integrate the experience, and clarify and restructure the experience.

Be ready to demonstrate new skills -- knowing, seeing, and self-discipline.

Students expect mentors to:

Be conscious of being a role model.

Be aware of teachable moments.

Be able to implement planned, guided experiences based on optimum conditions and student need.

Teach by indirection, continuously giving realistic appraisals of student progress.

Be creative in structuring the creative pause, in which the student is led through stages of creative problem solving.

First and Second Year Results

During the first year of the program, three teams were formed. Initially, four months of activity were planned, but in reality, it took seven months of work for the teams to complete their projects and the conditions of the contract. After much discussion among team members, the building principal, and the University supervisor, it was decided to make the following alterations in the program to begin the following year:

> to narrow the scope of the projects,
>
> to increase the length of the work periods while reducing the number of contacts,
>
> to increase the amount of supervision from the administrators involved.

1986-1987 was the second year of the program. There were eight teams with students from three schools and results were much more positive.

Outcomes

The benefits of this program were many and varied. The university students benefitted by participating in a field experience which provided them with practical knowledge of the scope and sequence of content taught at the middle school level and practical experience in working to meet the needs and interests of gifted students.

The gifted students benefitted from the individualized attention, encouragement, and recognition they received as well as from the academic enrichment facet of the program.

The University and middle schools benefitted from the cooperative relationship that was developed and the local educational community benefitted from the development and training with the new software packages.

MODEL TWO

The second model was developed at the University of Redlands and the Redlands Unified School District to provide a program for gifted 4th, 5th, and 6th grade students. Redlands is a community of 50, 000 residents in the Los Angeles basin at the foot of the San Bernardino mountains. The Redlands school district contains schools spread over a fairly wide geographic area, has some large and some small schools, and services students from a variety of cultural backgrounds. The University of Redlands is a small, private, liberal arts institution with an enrollment of approximately 2000 students in residential and extension campuses. The School of Education is dedicated to the preparation of quality teachers in a highly personalized format and the teacher education programs have a high level of field experience components threaded throughout with many placements made in the Redlands Unified School District. As a result of this and due to the high quality of the students' skills, the relationship between the University and the School District is very positive and opportunities to conduct joint projects are greeted with enthusiasm.

The cooperative venture discussed in this paper began as a way to maintain a gifted education program in the wake of budget cuts and reduction in the level of state funding. The school district found it would be unable to continue delivery of the same type of enrichment program and began to explore other options. The University was approached for assistance and a joint program was developed.

The Cooperative Agreement

The original cooperative agreement contained the following components:

> The school district would identify gifted 4th, 5th, and 6th grade students who would be eligible to participate in the program.
>
> The school district would provide transportation from the elementary schools to the university campus.
>
> The school district would provide funding for materials and salaries for three credentialed teachers to work part-time in the program.
>
> The school district and university would jointly decide upon the subject areas for the program classes.
>
> The university would develop the job descriptions, advertise, and select the three teachers.

The university would select teacher education students to serve as instructional assistants for the program.

The university would provide classrooms, materials, and equipment.

Program Structure

It was decided that the classes would be offered two mornings per week, with half of the students attending classes one morning, and the other students attending classes the second morning. The students would be dismissed from their regular classes, bused from their buildings to the university campus, would participate in a ninety minute class session, and then would return by bus to their regular schools. Students and their parents would be asked to state their preferences among the three topical areas and all efforts would be made to enable students to receive their first choice. All three topical areas would be enrichment to the regular education curriculum and would be of high interest to elementary gifted students. The teachers would be selected based on special certification teaching experience, and expertise in the topical area.

Program Modifications

Based upon the experience the first year, minor alterations were made in the contract. In the five years of operation, the program has experimented with scheduling patterns, course offerings, teacher selection, and child identification. The agreement was extended to include the services of the county museum of natural history and students now attend classes at the museum site one semester and on the university campus the other semester.

Outcomes

This program has allowed the school district to offer gifted education classes at a relatively low cost and has allowed students in outlying schools to participate in the special program. Having the gifted students on the university campus has enabled both teacher education students and university faculty to have contact with gifted elementary level students. The success of the cooperative venture has led to discussion of other joint programs between the district and the university.

CONTRACT

STUDENT NAME: ______________________________

TEACHER NAME: ______________________________

SCHOOL NAME: ______________________________

PRINCIPAL NAME: ______________________________

U OF P CONTACT NAME: ______________________________

MENTOR NAME: ______________________________

DATES CONTRACT IN EFFECT: ______________ THROUGH ______________

PROJECT TITLE: ______________________________

PROJECT DESCRIPTION:

MATERIALS/EQUIPMENT NEEDED:

SCHEDULE:

In signing this form, we agree to work cooperatively to complete the terms of this contract.

______________________________ ______________________________

STUDENT SIGNATURE/DATE MENTOR SIGNATURE/DATE

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Taking the Mystery Out of Transition: A Comprehensive Vocational Assessment, Vocational Planning and Transition Plan Delivery Process for Rural Districts

Proposal for Presentation at the

Alternative Futures for Rural Special Education Conference

February 24 - 27, 1988

Monterey, California

Theme Area: Preparing for Independence, Vocational and Career Assessment, Planning and Transition Plan Implementation Process.

Purpose: The purpose of this presentation is to share with other professionals (teachers, support personnel, administrators) and parents a comprehensive career/vocational assessment process that leads to a four year career/vocational plan and ultimately a determination and implementation procedure and process for a transition plan.

Rural Focus: Heartland Area Education Agency is an intermediate educational agency providing special education support services to 61 public school districts in central Iowa serving 11,000 handicapped students. The vast majority of these districts are small rural.

Practical Implications: During the past two years Heartland special education career/vocational personnel have developed a comprehensive yet simple and direct process and set of procedures for addressing career/vocational assessment, planning and transition planning for handicapped youth. The process begins with all 8th grade handicapped receiving a career/vocational assessment which leads to the beginning of a four year career/vocational plan that join with regular vocational education programming and culminates in the determination, development and implementation of a transition plan. The process focuses on the IEP team participants (teachers, parents, student, support personnel, community agency representatives) as the key players and decision makers throughout the process.

The simplified yet direct practical approach to a coordinated and systematic career planning and transition plan implementation process has made career/vocational preparation and future planning very workable and manageable for all districts, staff and many community service providers and agencies.

The coordination, planning, implementation and staff development activities associated with these efforts, as well as others, have come about through a joint area wide pooling of federal Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act funds for handicapped and disadvantaged. For the past three years Heartland has administered a joint pooling project involving 57 of the 61 districts, many of which would not have accessed these funds had it not been for a pooling arrangement. This project has not only provided financial assistance to address these issues and supporting activities, it has also been an impetus in bringing many small rural districts and staff into this systematic and coordinated process aimed at meeting the career/vocational needs and future planning needs of handicapped populations.

Our presentation will focus on sharing the process, procedures and materials developed for the comprehensive assessment, career/vocational planning and transition planning process presently underway in districts served by Heartland. Additionally, we will share with participants the Joint Carl Perkins pooling project and the other staff development activities, resources and materials developed for handicapped and disadvantaged populations via that project.

Objectives:

- Share and discuss with participants the process, procedures and materials developed and implemented for comprehensive and coordinated career/vocational assessment, planning and transition planning for handicapped youth.

- Share and discuss with participants the cooperative joint Carl Perkins Project goals, staff development activities and materials developed and implemented for handicapped and disadvantaged populations via this project over the past three years.

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Rural Quality Indicators For Special Education Trainees

For over two years, the College of St. Joseph in rural Vermont has been implementing a unique model for trainees in the area of intensive special education. Trainees from our program are prepared to provide instruction and supervision to learners with moderate and severe handicaps within regular elementary education classroom. In this model learners with moderate to severe and profound handicaps receive most of their training in regular settings and only leave such classrooms to receive specialized services such as occupational therapy, physical therapy and community-based training. The Vermont "model" is in direct response to the rural needs of learners with moderate to severe handicaps and this model is also a direct answer to the demographic variables which gives the state of Vermont its rural nature such as isolation, extreme weather conditions, rugged topography, etc.

In support to its direct training of undergraduates, the rural special education project "joins" its recent graduates through a teleconferencing system. The once-a-month teleconferencing allows the recent graduates to share experience, request support and feel connected to other recent graduates who are also working in isolated rural Vermont communities.

The training program has four major components each with a particular focus: 1) elementary integrated coursework and practicum, 2) specialized coursework and practicum, 3) the on-going development of quality indicators for rural teachers in integrated elementary education settings and 4) a system of teleconferencing to minimize the feelings of isolation prevalent among special education graduates teaching for the first time in rural communities.

The philosophical underpinnings which provide the framework for this project are based in the belief that in order for trainees to be truly facilitators of learning in individuals with handicaps, they must first understand the cultural manifestations of Vermont's rural community and its people as well as the broader issue of social equity.

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Out-Reach Project: Serving the At-Risk Population

The purpose of this presentation is to share information and strategies regarding the implementation of a program for "At-Risk" children and their families in a rural area by a Private Not for Profit Corporation.

The funding for our program was made available through a grant from the New York State Developmental Disabilities Planning Council through the Federal Developmental Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act as amended by P.L. 98-527. The objectives of the program are to improve parenting skills, increase the awareness on the part of families regarding the utilization of area resources, improve developmental skills on the part of the children (ages 0-5), and referral of children and their families for needed special services.

The ReHabilitation Center, recipient of the grant monies, is located in Cattaraugus County (northern tip of Federal Appalachia). The approximate population is 81,000 and it is part of the New York State Southern Tier West Planning Region. The county is populated by two cities, eighteen villages, and thirty-two incorporated towns. The demographic statistics indicate over 50% of the population resides along the area settled near the Allegany River from Portville to Salamanca, New York. Also located within the county is the Seneca National Reservation of Salamanca and Cattaraugus. Industry is concentrated near the above mentioned areas with the greatest percentage of the county's land being comprised of dairy and small agricultural farms.

The county is approximately 1,336 square miles and very sparsely populated in the northern section. There is no county-wide network transportation system. Without individual means of transportation, many residents of Cattaraugus County are severely limited in seeking access of goods and services.

The ReHabilitation Center is the only agency of its kind in the county. Services currently rendered include Special Education programming for children birth through 21 with a variety of handicapping conditions; Adult services available are a Day Treatment Program, vocational evaluation, sheltered production, counseling and personal adjustment training, Rehabilitation Facility Design Project (Clinical Services), and placement and follow-along services. The ReHabilitation Center also operates an Article 28 Public Health Department Certified Out-Patient Clinic (Diagnostic and Treatment Center). Specific Clinical Services include: Speech Pathology, Audiology, Psychology, Social Work, Nursing, Occupational and Physical Therapies, Medical, Psychiatric and Outreach Services.

In addition, the Center has developed a range of residential opportunities and options in an attempt to meet the varied needs of the developmentally disabled in Cattaraugus County. Current program offerings include: Two community residences, eight supportive apartments, a Children's Intermediate Care Facility, and a supervised apartment program. We are in the process of constructing a new 5,000 square foot single story community residence which will permit us to serve 12 moderately to severely developmentally disabled adults who suffer physical disabilities. This program will open on April 1, 1988.

The Agency currently operates a fleet of fifteen school buses, six of which are equipped with lifts for wheelchairs. The buses daily transport approximately 285 handicapped individuals to and from specialized Day Programs operated by the Agency. Additionally, the Agency contracts with a local carrier for the transport of approximately 115 handicapped children to and from specialized preschool and school aged programs for the handicapped.

Using grant monies, The ReHabilitation Center has initiated a program of parent involvement, parent education, developmental and educational activities for children, and direct and indirect advocacy services for parents. The population served is comprised of low income families, disabled parents, premature infants, siblings of handicapped children, children who experienced trauma at birth and teenage parents.

Staff hired to carry out the program included a full time early childhood development specialist to provide home-based and center-based educational and developmental activities; a part-time teacher aide to assist with the two day per week center-based educational programs; and part-time consultants in the disciplines of Speech, Physical and Occupational Therapies to provide needed evaluations or other consultative services. In our program proposal the agency sought to hire a part-time social worker to do intakes, review referrals and act as an advocate for needy families. Qualified personnel to fill this position could not be located. The Agency's screening and outreach specialist has been doing the intakes and referrals until one is found.

Referral sources include, but are not limited to, the Cattaraugus and Allegany County Parent Education Program, Cattaraugus County Department of Social Services, the Cattaraugus County Project Head Start and the Cattaraugus County Cooperative Extension.

The goals of the At Risk program are:

a. To provide early intervention services to children defined as being at risk of developing handicapping conditions;

b. To identify conditions which might interfere with normal development during the preschool years;

c. To help families provide a home environment that aids the child's physical, intellectual, and social development;

d. To show the feasibility of parents and educators working together on a part-time basis to help each child develop as fully as possible during the period of birth to 5;

e. To educate parents with a disability in specific parenting skills;

f. To offer support and advocacy to parents based on their needs;

g. To model for parents specific behavior, and activities in both the home setting and group (Agency) setting.

Specific activities to be modeled by the teacher in the home and classroom settings include: appropriate language; play to encourage fine and gross motor skills; providing proper stimulation for cognitive skills such as reaching, recognizing cause and effect, following directions appropriately, etc.; positive reinforcement for appropriate behavior or response; and activities to encourage socialization.

Families needing the At-Risk program services are identified through the ReHabilitation Center's Early Childhood Screening Program and referrals from other agencies, as stated previously. A basic intake is done by the Screening Specialist. Original plans called for a social worker to make an initial home visit and do the intake at that time, but we have not been successful in locating one. We are still searching for a social worker, but in the meantime, our screening specialist has been able to meet this need.

The Project's teacher, trained in early childhood development, then begins her home visits. During the visits the teacher provides an appropriate model for the parent(s). These visits take place at least once per month.

A contract with our community's Parent Education Program was developed. Home visits to parents with children ages birth to three, to provide information to the parents on specific parenting skills, as well as information regarding accessing needed services from community resources, are conducted. These visits are also once per month and are in addition to the visits The Project's teacher makes.

Both children and parents are transported, by agency owned buses to a center-based program twice per week for half day sessions to participate in group activities. During the center-based experience, parents observe the teacher and participate in the activity. Parent support group activities are also provided by the project supervisors during these center based visits. Some children may require short-term therapy (speech, O.T./P.T.) and they are scheduled during this time, with parents in attendance to observe techniques.

An IEP and family service plan is written up for each child/ family, concentrating on areas of possible concern. The child's strengths are highlighted and used to help improve other areas of development. Family service plans are developed individually, with many purposes in mind. Childproofing the home, establishing a better parent-child relationship and specific task objectives are left monthly with each family to work on until the next home visit.

Evaluation of program effectiveness is evidenced in monthly observations of the parent and child in home and center bases. IEP and family service plans are re-evaluated and updated during the second half of the program (January), and progress is noted. At the end of the grant year, data will be collected to determine percentage of goals achieved.

One barrier encountered due to being located in a rural area includes transportation costs. The children and their families are transported to the center based program by agency owned buses. Some of the families live so far away from the center that the cost of bringing them to program can exceed $50.00 per day. The local Department of Social Services has been called for assistance with transportation for some of the children they referred that live a great distance away. They have been very cooperative and have agreed to help us on a case by case basis.

Another barrier encountered was a shortage of Social Workers in the area. Our screening specialist has taken over some of the duties that the social worker would be responsible for but there is still a void in the program. Some of the parents need counseling and help with the red tape involved with getting assistance through various public agencies. We are still actively recruiting a social worker for the Project.

Due to the rapidly increasing number of children and families being served, available space has become a concern. Many families have more than one child in the program and the room available is small. An additional problem related to the space is the cooperation of parents coming to the center based program. In the beginning, when parents' participation was minimal, there wasn't concern for room. The available space suited the need adequately. However, parent attendance has increased and so has the need for a larger room. There are children of different ages involved and at this time they are not grouped according to age/functioning level. This makes it difficult for the teacher and aide to divide their time and still plan appropriately for each child's needs. Near future plans are to extend the center-based program to include an afternoon session so that children can be grouped more homogeneously, as far as ages of children go.

Although we strongly encourage parents/caregivers to attend the center-based program 2 times weekly, there have been individual cases when the parents could not attend, due to work schedules or infants at home. In cases like this, we continue to serve the at-risk child, both in home and center-based programming, but may add an extra monthly visit to make sure that the parents understand goals and are carrying them out as directed. Additional parenting skills are also evaluated and expanded upon.

The capabilities of parents vary from family to family and this has posed some problems in setting up inservices for families that can meet the variety of needs presented. Utilization of agency staff has been of great benefit to the program.

We are very pleased to be able to offer an at-risk program to families in our area. It is a much needed service. Our student population has grown from a caseload of thirteen in October 1987 to thirty one in December, and continues to increase every month. We feel very positive about the grant being extended for an additional year. Perhaps by the time that year has ended there will be federal funding available to continue an at-risk program on a permanent basis.

It has been our experience over the past several years that early clinical and educational intervention is highly effective in ameliorating handicapping conditions of children and rendering them ready for public school by the time they are age 5 or 6. The continuance of this effort is viewed as imperative because it has also been our experience that once children are placed in special education, they stay there for the duration of their formal education.

The current project is seen as an extension of the agency's continuum of early intervention strategies designed to identify, assess, treat and educate children and their families to the end of obviating conditions that would result in the need for extensive services for the rest of their life.

Based upon our experience, we would strongly urge other agencies to add similar services to their continuum of available educational and treatment programs.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24

3:25 - 4:25 PM

ENRICHING MOTOR SKILLS THROUGH GAMES

MOTORIC GAMES INFLUENCE ACADEMIC SKILLS

by Barbara Sher, MA,OTR

When the education system took a turn "back to basics", it translated at the rural school level to no money for physical education, among other losses. Schools now need to depend on parent volunteers or classroom teachers to provide their PE classes. And even when teachers feel knowledgeable enough to organize a motor skills learning program or are lucky enough to find a parent who is able **and** willing, they usually don't have any funds for equipment.

This decrease in emphasis on movement education can correlate with an increase in learning problems. Children who have not finished integrating their sensorimotor information will have difficulty with reproducing and understanding the abstract information that is academically required.

Children begin to learn about the world through the somato-sensory and vestibular system. Learning is primarily sensorimotor. As children grow they begin to incorporate vision to control movement. There is a move from crude, subcortical to more refined systems. A four year old can't use visual input to adjust his jumping speed to that of a rope. The rope speed must be adjusted to the child's jumping speed. By seven or eight, the child can adjust her jumping to the speed of the rope, using vision.

With maturation, there is also improved intersensory communication. This means a move from the isolated functioning of sensory systems to multisensory functioning. Babies are then able to focus in on more than one input at a time

From 1-4 years, it is the improved intersensory communication that leads to the integration of two sides of the body, and the development of the ability to cross midline. Balance reactions allow children to develop an awareness of who s/he is and where s/he is in space. This intersensory communication helps children learn about their body schemes and how to plan movement. These concepts are crucial for learning. A child unfamiliar with his or her own form cannot reproduce forms on paper to write or even draw. Just placing a pencil in the desired place on the paper may be difficult. Without the ability to cross midline, the child my have difficulty maintaining the smooth, coordinated eye movement necessary to read or scan a page.

There is a refinement of skills from 3-7 years secondary to improved intersensory discrimination. Each system becomes more precise. Without these refinements, differences and similarities in patterns will not be easily recognized. There may be poor spacing of letters, numbers and words.

When the perceptual-motor skills are developed adequately, the results will be academic learning, abstract thinking ability and behavioral stability. Competence in these skills depends upon the level of integration of previous phases. If the body and brain are sending mixed up messages, the result is poor body scheme, inadequate motor planning and lower self concept.

There are 18 major perceptual-motor skills that children are integrating. The skills are listed below along with the behavior teachers would see in the classroom if there were weaknesses in these areas:

1) Body Awareness-This is knowing how much space ones body takes up and what part does what. School children with a lack of this awareness get their clothes caught when they go under the fence,try to get into spaces that they are too big to fit into, or tend to hit others with their gesturing arms.

Games that require one to go under or over increasing different heights such as the gradual lowering of a rope or other "Limbo" type games work on this skill.

2) Balance-This is a state of equilibrium that, if weak, shows itself in an awkward walk, unnecessary tension, sometimes a cautiousness towards activities that require changes in movement.

Games such as kickball, hoping and balance beam walking are some that meet this need.

3) Eye-Foot Coordination- This is the eye guiding the foot. Children who trip,stumble over things and veer off the path could be having difficulty in this area

Games that require attention to ones feet such as stepping stones, rope walking or soccer are useful for strengthening this skill

4) Laterality- This is the ability to move both sides independently and separately from each other. A child having difficulty with this will probably not be able to skip or distinguish a "b" from a "d" or a "p" from a "q".

Galloping, skipping, standing on one leg, walking with one leg stiff are some ways of calling the independence of the body sides into awareness

5) Motor Planning- This is the ability to plan ahead in a new situation. A child without this skill is going to have difficultly maneuvering up a tree or figuring out how everyone else is doing that dance step.

Obstacle courses, jumping over different size objects, tiptoeing through a maze, climbing a tree, and getting down from a tree(!) are good excercises in motor planning.

6) Motor Control- It is this skill that enables one to stop, start, and change direction quickly. This student is the one most likely to run into walls and other students.

Practice in motor control is gained from freeze tag and other tag games, football, dodgeball,basketball,etc. The effect of competition on each individual should be a consideration in choosing the appropriate activity .

7) Jumping- Like laterality, this is the ability to work two halves of the body independently. In this case it is the top half and the bottom. Children unable to jump will tend to hold their bodies as a unit and be more inflexible and awkward.

Jumping off things, over things , in place and like an frog would be useful activities.

8) Eye-Hand Coordination-In this skill the eye guides the hand making handwriting more legible and ball catching possible.

Throwing,tearing, cutting, bowling, writing, drawing,stringing are all good eye-hand activities.

9) Fine Motor ability-This is the awareness of how much force is needed to do a task as well as which muscles are required to do the job. Children who erase so hard that there is no paper left or who continue to break pencil points may need extra work on these skills.

Manipulating smalll game pieces, making sculptures out of clay or toothpicks and softened peas are the kind of excercises that help fine motor control.

10) Spatial Awareness - This is the awareness of where one is in space in relation to everything else. The child who is continually bumping into others, writing sentences that slant, or getting lost on a page of math may need work on spatial relationships.

Walking blindfolded with a guide while trying to keep an internal awareness of where one is is helpful as is drawing maps and room plans.

11) Rhythm - This is the abilty to perceive a regular recurrence of elements. The ability to run smoothly requires a good sense of rhythm. Speaking smoothly and reading without interruptions also require rhythm.

Imitating others rhythms, repeating simple dance steps or foot patterns enhance rhythmic ability.

12) Flexibility - The ability to be limber can affect one's choices of activities as well as one's attitude. Inflexibility, motorically speaking, is often caused by unreleased tension or poor physical habits.

Stretching , especially after a small aerobic warm-up, is a good break activity during the school day. It also counteracts the compression of the spinal cord that occurs from prolonged sitting.

13) Eye-Movement - The ability to control eye muscles. Without adequate control, a child will have difficulty learning to read. Horizontal jerkiness disrupts the left to right flow, affecting comprehension and slowing the reader down. With vertical jerkiness, the child may re-read lines or skip lines all together unless a marker is used

14) Endurance - This is the ability to withstand stress. The students who tire easily and are quick to quit would do well with gradually increased excercises to prolong their endurance.

15) Speed - The ability to move rapidly can be increased by running in a straight line

16) Strength - This quality of being strong can be increased by lifting increasingly heavy objects.

17) Total Body Coordination - This is the ability of the muscles to work smoothly together.

Games that require many changes in shape, force, tempo and levels such as obstacle courses and gymnastics encourage good coordination.

18) Relaxation - This is the ability to let go of muscle tension and is crucial for learning. There is a high correlation between children who have difficulty learning and relaxation. It is difficult for students to incorporate new information when their systems are already on "overdrive".

Taking time to breathe, take a pulse, do body swings and games that go from a state of tension to a state of relaxation (tin soilder/rag doll walks) are all useful.

A study was done in Paris and reported by HM Skeels comparing the effects on children of a school curriculum with two hours per week of Physical Education and one with one to two hours of P.E. each afternoon.

The school was divided into two groups. One had a standard curriculum with two hours per week or PE and 23 hours per week of academics. The experimental group had four hours of academics with a ten minute break, and then lunch. The afternoon started with 1-2 hours of P.E., including organized play, then art and music followed by individual study time. The finding were that the first group had:
1) Poor attention to task in the afternoon
2) Insufficient physical education

Group two findings were:
1) Improvement of health and fitness
2) Improved academic performance
3) Improved intellectual performance on standardized test
4) A decrease in discipline problems

Teachers reported:
1) Better control of students
2) Improved social interaction among students
3) More positive attitudes towards teacher
4) Teachers were more organized and efficient

This study was replicated in Japan and Belgium with similar results.

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For the rest of the time together we are going to play a variety of games that help strenghten the skills listed above. The majority of games are from two books. The first is **MOVING RIGHT ALONG**, a book in which the activities are categorized according to which skills are being increased. There are chapters on activities for improving Balance; another for Eye-Hand Coordination, etc.

The other book is **EASY GOING GAMES** which suggest games that use simple, easily found equipment such as balloons, newpaper, cardboard boxes, mismatched socks, etc.

Both books and a catalogue are available from BRIGHT BABY BOOKS & TOY/TOOL. 101 STAR LANE, WHITETHORN, CA 95489 for $15.30 postpaid

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A Textbook of Motor Development, Pg 111-115

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Curriculum Revision and the Native American Student

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Abstract

Native American parents are too often silent bystanders in the educational experiences administered to their children. This has generated feelings of inadequacy, alienation and frustration which has ultimately led to feelings of powerlessness and hopelessness. The NAFICS model is designed to assure that all voices can be heard and that the most beneficial balance of experiences are provided in all aspects of the operation of the public schools.

Curriculum Revision and the Native American Student

> "...I know that my race must change. We cannot hold our own with the white men as we are. We only ask an even chance to live as other men live. We ask to be recognized as men. Let me ask that the same law shall work alike on all men. Let me be a free man--free to travel. free to stop, free to trade, free to choose my own teachers, free to follow the religion of my fathers, free to think and talk and act for myself--and I will obey every law, or submit to the penalty..."
>
> --Chief Joseph

These words were spoken almost 100 years ago by Chief Joseph, leader of the Nez Perce tribe, western Indians once exiled to Oklahoma's Indian Territory. Many Native Americans today face the problems of the 1870s: poverty, exploitation, and discrimination. He is torn between two worlds, two cultures. Young people coming from homes, where much of the traditional Indian culture is retained...beliefs, customs, value systems, and for some, the native Indian language, have tremendous pressure placed upon them as they attempt to make the transition from their traditional Indian culture to the dominate white culture.

Generally, until about the age of six, youngsters from traditional Indian homes are taught "to be Indian." However, in the years following, they are exposed to a non-Indian school system which provides programs that usually make little provision for the fact that the Indian students' background is quite different from the white majority. The schools also seldom provide special guidance services which are needed to aid the Indian youngsters in their very difficult journey of transition into the mainstream of American life. After several years of constant exposure to two (and often conflicting) cultures, these youngsters become confused as to their place in the communities. Moreover, they often begin to doubt that they even have a place in society.

In a recent interview, several teen-age Indians in an eastern Oklahoma community were asked, "How do the traditions and customs of Indians fit in with the lives of Indian teenagers today?" One seventeen-year-old girl answered: "Well I think that the Indian kids today think that their customs and ways are a little bit old-fashioned and that they would rather be a part of the newer generation of the world coming on and they would want to be up-to-date and have some of the latest things coming on." Another seventeen-year-old said, "I think it's very hard to live in both cultures and it's hard to choose. You want to be one of them, but it's so hard you can't choose."

Definition of Indian

Cultural diversity among Native American groups is a reality. Differences exist according to geographic location, history, language, and culture. However, there are certain core values that appear to be common among all groups of Indians; these core values are the common thread that tie Native Americans together and establish a bond of "Indianness."

The Indian child deviates from his white peers in many ways. First, the Indian child may not have the same time orientation as the white child. The Indian child seems more apt to live day by day; our schools stress the future. Second, in many instances, Indian families place great value on individual autonomy within the restraints of the interdependent relationships of the extended family and the tribal community. Thirdly, Indians value keeping balanced or harmonious relations with others to avoid interpersonal stress and conflict. Sharing seems to be extremely important. Another value of the Native American is that of cooperation. However, this value is often misinterpreted as if the Indian child is noncompetitive. He enjoys group competition which allows him to express the value of cooperation, while shying away from individual competition which pits one student against another.

In summary, the universal values of "Indians" are time orientation, autonomy, interpersonal harmony, sharing, and cooperation. In many respects a first impression of Indian children is that they are model pupils, eager to learn, always busy, and working in a deliberate and intense manner. Their actions are restrained and controlled, and rarely do they disrupt the classroom with overt behavior. Even when they speak is in a very soft voice. Nonverbal communication is relied upon heavily to replace words; utilizing the movement of the eye, a gesture, an inflection in tone to replace a good many words. In the hectic enterprise of day-to-day teaching, it becomes easy for the teacher to overlook the needs of the nonagressive student.

School Expectation

Schools attended by traditional Native American children have generally held classes on rigid schedules; encouraged competition among peers as the prime form of motivation, suppressed native languages requiring English as the language for teacher and student and maintained discipline with authoritarian (not democratic) methods. Rigid schedules, competition, and so on, are foreign to Native American value systems. Thus, current public educational practice cannot necessarily be viewed as a vehicle for developing upward economic mobility for traditional Native Americans, but in many respects can be interpreted as a weapon of subjugation.

Data relative to the high drop-out rate of Indian children, poor school attendance, and low academic performance suggest progressive retardation for the Indian student. There are probably several reasons for this educational dilemma:

1. The school and the classroom teacher are responsible for non-learning, because the first has no expectation of learning and the second fails to teach, thus resulting in the self-fulfilling prophecy.
2. Disharmony between the school's expectations and those of the Native American family and neighborhood impedes the child's functioning in the academic setting.
3. The impregnable insularity of the educational bureaucracy has resulted in an unwillingness, on the part of educators, to relate to a multi-cultural clientele leading to a breakdown in home-school communication.
4. Attempts at making the educational program relevant to the needs of Indian children have usually focused on the overt behaviors of dress, customs, and language; at the expense of the more difficult to assess covert behaviors of beliefs, ideals, values, and feelings of personal identity.

What the School Can Do

Historically, the responsibility for curriculum reform has been delegated to the professional educator. More often than not, educational programs have been planned and then the clientele was expected to fit the program. This arrogant posture has been reflected the past several years as many individuals or agencies have attempted to become the educational messiah of the Indian. Such agencies or individuals have designed programs to produce miracles in the educational realm. The implementation of such programs have been decreed "good" by the designers and pursued with missionary zeal. The lacking ingredient in such programs has been the glaring omission of Native American involvement in planning, implementing, follow-through and evaluation of projects. Most program designers are ignorant of Indians. Therefore, our professional consciousness will not allow us to recommend a grand curriculum design to be imposed upon all Indian children; rather our intent is to propose a strategy for involving parents of Native American children as active partners in the curriculum adventure.

Native American Family-Involvement Communication System (NAFICS)

Native Americans of traditional background have been treated as if they are incapable of managing their own affairs. A certain amount of expertise is a prerequisite to all smooth-running operations and spokesmen for Native Americans agree they need assistance in solving some of their problems. Such "assistance," however, is misinterpreted by non-Indians who try to take over and manage their affairs. The paternalistic practices of some educators have a tendency to frustrate and inhibit the maturity of traditional Native Americans. A lack of confidence in the abilities of Native Americans to solve their own problems contributes to the deterioration of the Indian self-image. Indian expertise must be nurtured and encouraged if autonomy is to become a reality among traditional Native American people.

In light of the foregoing conditions, it seems imperative to design a school-home communications system whereby low-income traditional Native American families can become active partners in the educational experiences of their young. The Native American Family Involvement-Communication System (NAFICS) is designed to be implemented where heterogeneous public school populations present special concerns to school personnel in facilitation of the social, emotional, physical and intellectual development of all children and youth.

Gordon (1970) suggests five levels of involving parents in public school: (1) audience, bystander-observer, (2) teacher of child, (3) volunteer, (4) trained worker, and (5) participants in decision-making i.e. through advisory board membership. Most attempts at involving parents in school programs have been at level one. The implementation of NAFICS would facilitate family participation at levels two through five.

Goals of NAFICS

The long-range goals of NAFICS are:

1. To assist traditional Native American families and children, in developing their leadership potential so that they may assume substantive roles as para-professionals working with other parents, teachers and students.
2. To extend and enhance the educational aspirations of traditional Native American youth.
3. To provide traditional Native American adults a system of becoming actively involved partners in the curricular and extra-curricular experiences of their children.
4. To develop viable community health services for Native American families residing in rural areas.

Presentation of the Model

In order to coordinate educational services provided for Native American children, as well as to encourage consultation with and the education of adults who are involved with their growth and development, a multi-faceted approach under the title of Native American Family Involvement-Communication System

(NAFICS) is proposed. NAFICS attempts to make a difference in the academic, social, and emotional growth of Native American children through: (1) focusing on the family as a cohesive unit; (2) providing renewal strategies in the form of demonstrations and in-service activities for school personnel and low-income families; (3) implementing an open communication system congruent with the basic tenets of democracy; (4) emphasizing a human and interactive approach; and (5) involving the family (parents, and children) in the educational experience to the extent that they become an integral part of the total activity.

The NAFICS model assumes that through joint concern and understanding both educators and parents will cooperate and together become more responsive to the needs of children and the needs of society. By involving Native Americans in active roles as para-professionals working with other parents, teachers, and students, an understanding of the educational objectives and needs would be enhanced. Parent involvement, as defined by NAFICS, is an entirely new concept when compared to information dissemination which has characterized traditional parent-education programs. NAFICS is based upon the premise of doing "with" families as opposed to doing "for" families.

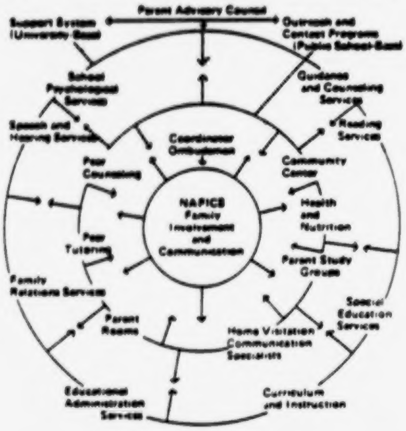
Parent Advisory Council
Support System (University Based)
Outreach and Contact Programs (Public School Based)
School Psychological Services
Guidance and Counseling Services
Speech and Hearing Services
Reading Services
Coordinator Ombudsman
Peer Counseling
Community Center
NAFICS Family Involvement and Communication
Health and Nutrition
Peer Tutoring
Parent Study Groups
Family Relations Services
Special Education Services
Parent Rooms
Home Visitation Communication Specialists
Educational Administration Services
Curriculum and Instruction

Figure 1 – Native American Family Involvement–Communication System

Figure 1 is an attempt to present schematically the NAFICS model. As can be seen by viewing Figure 1, the family, with the dual goals of communication and involvement, is at the center of NAFICS. The interfaced arrows of the system express openness. The three major components of the model are: (1) Parent Advisory Council (community based), (2) Outreach and Contact Program (school-community based), and (3) Support System (university based).

Professional personnel required for the implementation of NAFICS are: (1) a Coordinator-Ombudsman, (2) Community Health Nurse, and (3) a Counselor. Graduate students would be assigned to assist in the training of Native American para-professionals and in the implementation and evaluation of the NAFICS program.

The Native American para-professionals trained in involvement and communication skills would have the major contribution in the actual implementation and continuation of NAFICS. By the end of a 12-month period of operation the NAFICS professional staff would serve only in consulting and coordination capacities. The NAFICS trained para-professionals would assume major responsibilities in training and supervising other Native Americans in order to assure the continuation of NAFICS.

Parent Advisory Council

A Parent Advisory Council (PAC), composed of Native American parents would be established at the outset of the program. The PAC would participate in interviewing and employing staff personnel. The NAFICS Coordinator-Ombudsman would report directly to the PAC. The PAC would be the final voice of authority in all matters concerning the program and would be involved in the ongoing evaluation of the project.

A vital function of the PAC would be to identify needs and concerns and to make subsequent input into the program. Hopefully, the PAC would become the nucleus for identifying and/or assuming the leadership responsibility necessary for the maintenance and continuation of NAFICS.

NAFICS Outreach and Contact Program

Coordinator-Ombudsman. This person would coordinate the activities of the NAFICS sub-components and related personnel and insure that these activities maintain the original focus, family involvement and communication. In addition, a major part of the mission would be that of an educational liaison. She/he would assist parents, upon request, in any way possible relative to the educational experience of their youngsters. He/she would be instrumental in establishing a facilitative loop for the youngsters as they enter consolidated high schools from the rural independent elementary school districts.

Community Center. A Community Center would be developed to provide means for Native American families to act together in projects of common interests to their school and community. Activities, not unlike the "pie supper" syndrome, would encourage the needed concept of the community being involved together.

Activities involving families could include projects in the following categories:

a. Socio-civic-economic--Establishment of materials on political and economic concerns, consumer education programs, focuses on power identification, negotiation procedures.

b. Home and family life--Nutrition workshops, 4H Club activities, scouts, cooking with commodities; and

c. Recreation--Arts and crafts, social
events, school plays.

Parent Study Groups. The general purpose of these study groups would be to help parents understand their children and to develop more effective ways of relating with them. The discussions, therefore, would be directed toward practical applications. Bi-lingual parents would be trained and supervised by the NAFICS Counselor to lead the study groups.

Home Visitation-Communication Specialist. The Home Visitation-Communication Specialist component is based upon the premise that behavior, rooted in attitudes and beliefs will change as a consequence of involvement and communication between parents and teachers, thus resulting in a more satisfying and productive school experience or students. Communication Specialist is the title given to Native American mothers or fathers who have taken the NAFICS training.

The duties of the Communication Specialist would be: (1) improving home-school communication through home visitations, and (2) attempting to help teachers gain an understanding of traditional Native American pupils. The Communication Specialist and teacher would form a team for home visitation purposes. The NAFICS Counselor would train and supervise the Communication Specialists.

Parent Room. The Parent Room would be a resource room operated by para-professionals and open at stated times, including evening and weekend hours. The Parent Room would have pamphlets, books, slides and film strips chosen for their pertinence to the parents and children of the school.

Employment possibilities, to the extent of earning funds for school fees, are limited for many Native American youngsters. One function of the Parent Room could be to establish an "Employment Opportunities Center" for junior high and high school age youngsters. Civic agencies and private citizens in the surrounding community would be asked to cooperate in this endeavor.

The NAFICS Counselor would assume responsibility for the training and supervision of the Native American Parent Room Coordinators. Parent Room Coordinators would disseminate information and serve as liaison between family and school and family and community.

Health Services. Many Native Americans, living in rural communities, lack information concerning and transportation to seek available health services. Indian hospitals are often located long distances from the rural community.

The NAFICS Rural Community Health Nurse would assess the health and nutritional needs of Native American families residing in the rural areas. He/she would establish lines of communication for the purpose of disseminating pertinent public health information and would implement a Community Health Program in conjunction with teachers, para-professionals and other project staff.

Peer Counselors. The Peer Counseling component is based upon the assumption that Native American youth are more apt to confide in other Native American youth than non-Indian adults identified with the school. Junior high and high school age Native American youths would serve as Peer Counselors to other Native Americans. Peer Counselors would receive formal training on a university campus. The Peer Counselors would be supervised by the high school and elementary school counselors (if the schools have certified counselors) and/or the NAFICS Counselor.

Peer Tutoring. Junior high and high school age Native American youth would serve as Peer Tutors to other Native Americans. They would receive formal training on a university campus. The Peer Tutor would have the same exposure to a university environment as the Peer Counselors. The Peer Tutors would be supervised by a high school, junior high or elementary school teacher and/or the NAFICS Counselor.

NAFICS Support System. The Support System for the Outreach and Contact Program of the NAFICS would be university based. Education services for school-age children are diversified but overlapping on most campuses. The separate entities are: (1) special education, (2) early childhood, (3) family relations, (4) speech and hearing, (5) reading, (6) school psychological services, (7) guidance and counseling services, (8) educational administration, and (9) curriculum and instruction.

Based on identified needs, support from these areas would be provided on a contractual basis. Two faculty members could be designated to coordinate the services provided by the Support System components. Public schools involved in the implementation of NAFICS could serve as practicum and internship sites for selected graduate students from the university.

Summary

Native American parents are too often silent bystanders in the educational experiences administered to their children. This has generated feelings of inadequacy, alienation and frustration which has ultimately led to feelings of powerlessness and hopelessness. The NAFICS model is designed to assure that all voices can be heard and that the most beneficial balance of experiences are provided in all aspects of the operation of the public schools.

In the final analysis, it should be pointed out that educators should exercise caution in viewing all persons classified as Native American as possessing "Indianness". All designated Native American children do not hold the values and characteristics of "Indianness".

Margaret Turner
Davis & Elkins College
Elkins, West Virginia

This presentation will outline the development of a cooperative program for college-age learning disabled students in a small, rural, 4-year liberal arts college.

The objectives of this session are:

1. to describe an existing model of a program for learning disabled college students
2. to discuss the problems and possibilities raised by the model.

The presenter will begin by describing a cooperative program for college-age learning disabled students currently being implemented at Davis & Elkins College, using data charts, sample forms, evaluation results and slides of actual classroom scenes.

Much has been written concerning the involvement of the Special Education faculty in the education of the college LD student. The limitations for a small 4-year liberal arts college are obvious. Many of these institutions do not have a Special Education faculty or program. However these institutions are often the ones chosen by the LD secondary student. The size, the quietness of a rural campus, allow for fewer distractions and smaller classes. The model currently being used at Davis & Elkins College is cooperative in nature. The existing personnel has been trained to deal with the LD student. Admission counselors have been provided with a handbook, selected forms and have attended a brief training session to aid them in their counseling of potential LD students. Advisement, placement and registration is handled by the Director of Learning Disabilities. The students attend an orientation session in the summer prior to their freshman year. Various faculty members are available at this time to instruct the students in fundamental math, reading and writing skills. During this summer session the students also begin strategy training in the areas of taking notes, time management, test taking, etc. Prior to the beginning of classes the entire faculty receives a brief inservice advising them of what to expect from the students. Private intensive sessions are then held with individual faculty members who will be working directly with the LD students. There are many services that are available for the LD student which are delivered by various departments such as: tutoring, career and personal counseling, individual sessions with LD specialists, monthly advisory meetings attended by all personnel involved with the students to monitor performance.

The presenter will then open discussion on issues raised by implementation of the model including appropriate inservice technqiues, maximum usage of auxillary personnel and the collection of meaningful evaluation data to assess program effectiveness.

Susan Pellegrini, Marlene Dick,
Jeri Traub, Lois Moulin
San Jose State University
San Jose, California

Planning for Successful Parent-Professional Transition Training Programs

Abstract

The proliferation of parent training programs in the United States is testimony to the critical role of parents in the education and transition process for "at risk" students. The purpose of these training programs ranges from teaching parents about special education laws, parents' and children's rights, teaching methods and curriculum, to teaching parents and professionals to work collaboratively in the development and implementation of student's Individual Education Programs and Individual Transition Programs. Some of these training programs appear to be extremely successful. They result in good parent-professional collaboration and effective transitions for infants, children and youth with special needs. Other programs report only marginal success; getting parents and professionals involved and keeping them involved is sited as one of the major difficulties for these programs.

The purpose of this presentation is to share the results of a California Department of Education supported project, in which survey research methods were used to conduct a nation wide review of parent training programs related to transition. In-depth interviews were completed with individuals from 50 parent training programs representing rural urban and suburban communities. The interviews revealed a number of practices which appear to correlate strongly with positive outcomes for parents, professionals and children or youth with special needs. The results of the project have been compiled in the form of a manual for planning, organizing and implementing parent professional training for transition appropriate to the needs of the individuals participating in the training.

The team of researchers who completed this project will identify the specific components of effective transition training programs for parents and professionals found in programs serving rural populations. Strategies and recommendations for planning, organizing, and implementing parent-professional training programs in rural areas, which are based on "best" practices found in literature and the survey will be highlighted. Researchers will specify content as well as processes for parent-professional training during the transition continuum from birth to adulthood. Resource materials will disseminated at the session.

THEME AREA: PRODUCTIVE PARTNERSHIPS

Mrs. Ruth Kass, Project Administrator
Arizona Department of Economic Security
Division of Developmental Disabilities
1400 West Washington Street (945A)
Phoenix, Arizona 85007

TRANSITION PLANNING THROUGH INTERAGENCY COLLABORATION

--the VESPERS story--

A national initiative by the United States Department of Education supports the transition process as a means of assisting students with special needs to move from school to the workplace. In keeping with this national initiative, collaborative transition planning in Arizona began in June of 1984 between Vocational Education, Special Education and the Rehabilitation Services Administration. This resulted in the development of a document called the "Arizona Interagency Delivery Agreement for Handicapped Persons through Vocational Education, Special Education and Vocational Rehabilitation Services Administration" -- better known as VESPERS. This document was a student centered, service oriented guide to ensure the best utilization of resources and talents and to facilitate the delivery of services to handicapped students. It outlined which disciplines had the primary and secondary responsibility for the provision of specific services or consultation. In the spirit of joint cooperation the three major agencies involved signed a formal letter of collaboration.(Exhibit 1)

In October of 1984, the Arizona Center for Vocational Education at Northern Arizona University brought together 60 persons representing a broad-based group of professional disciplines to promote the VESPERS initiative. The objectives were to:

1. Assist students with disabilities in making the transition from school to the workplace;
2. Revitalize and expand the practical working relationships of agency, community and education personnel working with disabled students at the local level;
3. Provide methods and resources to assist teachers, counselors, vocational evaluators, and employers in working cooperatively on behalf of students with disabilities.

To ensure the success of transition services, the original 3 agencies realized the need to draw in others who were also concerned with employment for persons with handicaps. Representatives from the Division of Developmental Disabilities, State School for the Deaf and Blind, Department of Corrections, Behavioral Health Services, community-based adult service agencies and interested others were invited to join the original VESPERS group. Attendees included individuals from almost all areas of the state. The participants were divided into geographic clusters so that planning for transition could center around local level needs and resources. This multidisciplinary geographical approach ensured that more comprehensive services could be designed for all students who might need assistance to become employed. Preliminary planning indicated that each group intended to expand its effort by involving others and defining its own resources, roles and responsibilities at the grass roots level.

In April of 1985, the original 60 individuals, plus another 40 committed to the VESPERS concept, reconvened to report on their progress. Reports by members of the geographical groups indicated that a wide variety of projects were implemented and new partnerships continued to develop. About this time a second letter of collaboration endorsing the VESPERS initiative was signed by the Division of Developmental Disabilities. (Exhibit 2)

During the early fall of 1987, to coincide with National Employ the Handicapped Week, the "Ability at Work" conference devoted its first day entirely to the VESPERS initiative. The audience included practitioners from various government agencies, staff of public and private organizations that are involved in providing transition services to individuals who are disabled, disabled people themselves, and educators and rehabilitation services personnel who are committed to the successful execution of the interagency agreements which make VESPERS work. Also in attendance were employer and parents without whose cooperation the VESPERS initiative would never have succeeded.

This multidisciplinary endeavor has created a more comprehensive service availability and confirmed the idea that the "grass roots" VESPERS effort was indeed a positive force in improving interagency collaboration and cooperation on behalf of students with disabilities as they moved from school to work. The VESPERS process melds education, rehabilitation, the employment sector and families into a cohesive, productive and successful framework that bridges the gap between school experiences and the realities of adult life.

This presentation is an attempt to describe how to get a Vespers project started, highlight a few of the successful Arizona projects, and provide information and resources relative to the transition of special education students from school to the workplace.

Getting started requires two major ingredients. One, agreement among affected agencies that the concept of transition is important; and two, the committment of staff to spend the time and energy necessary to make the process work. Interagency agreements can eminate from the state level, county level, or local community level. Key departments at the state level include Vocational Education, Special Education, Rehabilitation Services, and other state agencies involved in the provision of employment and training services to youth and adults. In a county run system, the agreements could be requested from a county official such as a member of a board of supervisors, a county superintendent of public instruction, or administrators responsible for human resource service delivery systems. At the local town or city level, try to get letters of collaboration from school officials, rehabilitation counselors, local mayor or council members, or major employers who have a position of influence in the community.

Once you have an agreement to cooperate a plan must be developed. To do this one must identify who the key players will be on the VESPERS team. Make sure that the players all recognize that they have an investment and they can expect a return on that investment. The time, energy and money spent on the education of handicapped children is everybody's investment and transition from school to a job should be the return on that investment. People with jobs contribute to the healthy economy of any community. People who earn money can purchase goods and services. Employers are more likely to settle and remain in communities where there is a readily available supply of workers.

After the key players have been identified, bring the group together to decide what needs to be done and by whom. Develop a written plan making sure that everyone in the group has some responsibility. Plans can be as simple as listing the goals or they can be as specific as deciding which student transition cases the group will tackle first. Examples of plans can be seen in Exhibits 3 & 4. Continue group meetings on a frequency basis best suited to the availability of the group members. Assess the success or failure of the plan and make revisions as needed. Don't get discouraged. Be satisfied with small successes at first. VESPERS coalitions are much like snowballs -- they get larger the longer they continue to roll. New ideas continue to emerge and the groups take on new forms. In Arizona we currently have 10 active VESPERS projects and at least another 5 fledgling emerging. No two are alike, and the reason for that is they were conceived, born and nourished to serve the distinctly different needs of individual communities.

Model projects:

Yuma, AZ is a community of about 48,170 residents, many of whom reside here only during the winter months. The Yuma Union High School District (YUHSD) is one of the oldest cooperative ventures in the state. YUHSD has implemented a school work experience program in cooperation with a local sheltered workshop, the Division of Developmental Disabilities, Vocational Rehabilitation Services, JTPA and the AZ Department of Education's division of of Vocational Education. It began as a pilot project funded by a grant from Voc Ed and as a result of the positive outcomes, it is now funded by the YUHSD. The project includes preemployment skills training, subsidized sheltered employment training, and subsidized and non-subsidized community employment training. They have also added a "Diversified Vocational Occupational Training Education (DVOTE) Club" for special education students and a JTPA summer youth program.

In Payson, AZ,(population 7,145)where many of the residents are summer visitors only, the local school district contracts with DSI, a private non-profit adult service agency. DSI also serves Voc Rehab and Division of Developmental Disabilities clients. DSI provides work adjustment training, a job club and work experience activities. The public school provides classroom activities in the morning and transports the students to DSI for their vocational training in the afternoon.When clients become job ready they are placed in employment in the community. Due to the lack of any major employer in this area, most of the jobs are in the service sector.

Prescott/Verde Valley. This VESPERS group is composed of representatives from schools, JTPA, RSA, DDD, the Mayor's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, community service provider agencies, parents, and advocacy organizations. They meet once a month in different locations so that all members may have an opportunity to attend at least one meeting per year. Individuals cases are referred to VESPERS and an effort is made to ensure that the student will receive the most appropriate services available, Because the population of many surrounding communities is to small to support its own VESPERS project, this group serves the communities of Humboldt, Dewey, Chino Valley and Camp Verde as well as the entire Prescott area.

Eastern Cochise County started with a 4-county " School-to-Work" conference at the local community college. Attendees to the conference decided to split the area up because of the great distances between communities. There are now 3 seperate VESPERS groups although some people are involved in all three.

Douglas (poulation 14,080), has a new Voc Rehab counselor who is trying to revitalize the coalition and has requested that anyone interested in transition contact her.

Willcox (population 3,825), recently held a 2-day intake for high school graduates and dropouts. Notices of the event were given through local radio and newspapers. There was a coordinated effort to screen referrals from the schools and individual vocational rehabilitation plans are being developed for eligible persons. In the case of a student not eligible for RSA, other alternatives are being sought.
Douglas VESPERS is working with a local non-profit adult service agency to examine ways to bring in or start new businesses for the area to provide more opportunities for students transitioning from school to adult life.
Bisbee, (population 8,055) has 2 special education students who will graduate this spring and who have been referred to an appropriate agency for services.
The Eastern Cochise County VESPERS is determined to succeed even though it has had more than its share of ups and downs in getting started. There is an air of optimism since Cochise Community College is showing an interest in providing post-secondary opportunities similar to those offered by Northland Pioneer Community College in Showlow, AZ.

The following people have indicated their willingness to provide additional information regarding their VESPERS projects:

Michael Brennan
DDD Project Administrator
1824 E. McKinley
Phoenix, AZ 85006
(602) 229-5175

George Daniels
Vocational/Special Services
Yuma Union High School District
3150 Avenue A
Yuma, AZ 85364
(602) 782-1119

Christopher Harmon
DES/VR
4710 E. 29th St.
Tucson, AZ 85732
(602) 745-5588

Erich Kessler
DES/VR Room 102
7 S. Hibbert
Mesa, AZ 85202
(602) 834-7777

Ms. Joanne Brown
Rehabilitation Counselor
DES/VR
1136 "F" Avenue
Box 1099
Douglas, AZ 85607
(602) 364-4446

Greg Green
DSI
400 W. Frontier
Payson, AZ
(602) 474-5829

Mike Kauss
Mesa Public Schools
549 N. Stapley Dr.
Mesa, AZ 85203
(602) 890-7078

Dr. Karen Newman
Cochise County
Educational Services
118 S. Arizona St.
Bisbee, AZ 85603
(602) 432-5481

John Parris
Prescott Unified Schools
146 S. Granite
Prescott, AZ 86301
(602) 445-5400

Dr. Diane Renne
AZ LRE Initiative
1535 W. Jefferson
Phoenix, AZ 85007
(602) 255-3183

Tom Reale
Metro Tech
1900 W. Thomas Rd.
Phoenix, AZ 85015

Terry Triplett
Transition Coordinator
Desert Valley High School
3535 N. 27th Ave.
Phoenix, AZ 85017
(602) 271-2983

Northland Pioneer College
Workshop for Developmentally Disabled Citizens
District Office
1200 E. Hermosa Drive
Holbrook, AZ 86025
Showlow Center telephone: (602) 537-2976

EXHIBIT 1

CAROLYN WARNER
SUPERINTENDENT

Arizona
Department of Education
1535 WEST JEFFERSON
PHOENIX ARIZONA 85007
(602) 255-4361

June 1, 1984

LETTER OF COLLABORATION

Dear Colleague:

The Arizona Departments of Education and Economic Security, through representatives of the Divisions of Vocational Education, Special Education, and Rehabilitation Services Administration, have collaborated in order to expedite and facilitate the delivery of services to handicapped students through this guide. It was reviewed at several different times in its development and, thereby, represents a consensus. We recognize that resources vary in each Local Educational Agency (LEA). It is our hope that this guide will aid local educators and counselors in their mutual efforts to develop effective programs for handicapped students. Information contained herein should assist local agency personnel to identify programs and student needs to be served by the programs and, thereby, attend to possible service gaps. The guide should also help to develop services and/or to access to technical assistance. To the extent that facilities and personnel will allow, we believe that the utilization of this guide will make a significant contribution to the provision of services in Vocational Education for handicapped persons.

Inherent in the philosophy of this document is a theme which calls for interagency collaborative planning and programming. We urge each LEA and local rehabilitation agency personnel to develop an implementation plan to promote a similar collaborative process, consistent with their local resources. Your personnel are encouraged to call upon the resources of the Departments in order to provide the most comprehensive response to these specialized needs. Mutual planning, programming, and efforts ensure the best utilization of talents and resources.

We appreciate the individuals who worked to make this guide possible. We are proud to participate in this collaborative effort.

Sincerely,

Chuck Essigs
Deputy Associate Superintendent
Special Education

John Lange
Deputy Superintendent
State Director of Vocational Education

Tom Tyrrell, Director
Vocational Rehabilitation
Services Administration
Department of Economic Security

EXHIBIT 2

ARIZONA DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC SECURITY
1717 WEST JEFFERSON • PHOENIX, ARIZONA • P.O. BOX 6123 85005

Bruce Babbitt
GOVERNOR

Douglas X. Patiño
DIRECTOR

July 1, 1985

LETTER OF COLLABORATION

Dear Colleague:

The Arizona Department of Economic Security, Division of Developmental Disabilities subscribes to the philosophy of interagency collaborative planning and programming as set forth in this document. We wish to be included in the process of expediting and facilitating the delivery of vocational services to persons with disabilities.

We appreciate the opportunity to join with other agencies participating in VESPERS.

Sincerely,

Ronald S. Barber
Assistant Director, DES
Division of Developmental Disabilities

EXHIBIT 3

ARIZONA DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC SECURITY
VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
4425 WEST OLIVE - GLENDALE, AZ 85302
Telephone - 842-1125

Bruce Babbitt
GOVERNOR

Douglas X. Patino
DIRECTOR

September 10, 1986

VESPERS: Transition Action Coalition

Goals for 1986-87:

1. Identify the service needs of the transition population and develop a system to quantify those needs.

II. Develop a plan to elicit active support for TAC issues from groups providing input to the legislature.

III. Develop a comprehensive public relations plan for marketing the transition concept. Prepare a public relations package and prioritize target groups for product dissemination.

IV. Put together a resource manual which is functional and easily updated.

V. Expand membership and identify target organizations for major focus of expansion efforts.

VI. Expand awareness of the Carl Perkins Act and its impact on transition issues.

VII. Format the various transition models identified by geographic areas by January, 1987.

VIII. Develop a transition form for use with the IEP and IVEP.

EXHIBIT 4

High School to Work Transition Activities
VESPERS Transitional Action Coalition (TAC)
East Valley LEA'S

RECAP: 1986 Programs

	Chandler	Mesa	Scottsdale	Tempe
Assigned TAC Participants	Deborah Manship	Chris Hauser	Maureen Oswald	Barbara Maddux
Pilot Projects	------	Yes	------	Yes
Parent/Student Registration for Transition info.	------	Student handcarried form home.	Letter to parents with agency info.	Teacher completed form with parent.

1987 Programs

	Chandler	Mesa	Scottsdale	Tempe	Gilbert	Boy's Ranch
Assigned TAC Participant	D. Manship B. Bednarek	M. Kauss D. Casler	Maureen Oswald	Barbara Maddux	Jay Royce	Alan Hildebrand
Parent/Student Transition efforts	Direct adult agency referrals-all consenting students.	Direct referrals of students selected by staff.	Direct referrals of students selected. Letters to parents of all other students.	Transition needs assessment done with each parent. Exit staffings with direct referrals.	Direct adult agency referrals upon student/parent consent.	Direct adult agency referrals.
Volunteers to help LEA'S with follow-up	Mary Santistephens ECETC (JTPA) 966-1451	Karen Thompson MARC Ctr. 969-3800	TBD	Carol Meyer Tempe Ctr. 894-2355	Jay Royce (summer ph.) 839-0957	Staff

Communication Links:

Personal Approach to PR

Dr. Durlynn Anema, Assistant Professor
Department of Communication, University of the Pacific

I. Intro

What is PR?

1. Writing a press release?
2. Writing a public service announcement (PSA)
3. Meeting with community leaders
4. Making a follow-up phone call
5. Commending an employee
6. Sending a thank you note

I think you realize PR is all these things and more. No matter how much money we spend on advertising or trying new gimmicks, PR really comes down to the personal approach for success.

I'll give some examples, and you'll know many more

*Large national firm--good salesmand poor warehouseman.

*Doctor's nurses or receptionists. Also goes for churches, etc.

*Reporter who asks good questions, takes a personal interest

MANY MORE. YOU can name THEM.

II. Public relations is tied to several communication links which are keys to job and personal success.

*Personal links--encourage employees to see the importance of other employees, to know what each employee does and that it contributes to the whole.

*Links with customers--too often someone like a secretary forgets the importance of that client or customer on the other end of the line. We might never get to talk to the customer or client if the secretary has taken a superior attitude. Emphasize that customers, clients come first.

* Professional links--Obviously one of the reasons you are here. Getting to know those people in your profession and yourfellow citizens. Helps us to see new ways of looking at old problems.

*Promotional links--This iswhere our publicity stories areimportant--letthe general public knowabout you and your business or organization, by the good things you do.

*Practitioner links--what is happening to others in our same business or organization? Reading, gaining knowledge in avariety of ways.

All this starts at the top, with administrators whouunderstand the importance of PR. It then filters to the staff, who will have expectations of managements, and also have loyalty, understanding of the organization, inspriation to help all members do their best cheerfully, and influence in restraining other members from saying or doing anything detrimental to the organization's welfare. With positive leadership from management, and good upward and downward communication, positive communication links are formed.

It also works for the pr we want to do--the story into the newspaper, thepromotion, the radio or TV spot.

How to make these successful? I was consluting with an education group. As I sent copies of a basic PR release, I alsoemphasized that the best approach for consistent publicity is tomeet with the local editor or station manager to explain their type of education (in this case adult education).

One local chapter preisdnet told me, "It was so easy to do." All her press releases had been published after I sent the guidelines. Now the editor calls her whenever he needs information about adult education. This camefrom apersonal approach--and each one of you are an expert that can be called by the local media, but youhave to let them know you exist.

The best stories you can put in areabout people. Remember, human interest plays well--and the general public loves to readabout thishuman interest. Often, you need a "grabber" for yourstory--meaning a special angle to attract media attention. However, it is the solid story behind that "grabber" that will keep the media and the public returning.

In working with the media be accessible. When they call talk to them. Don't get upset about a story, unless it is blantly wrong. Politely point out the errors. Try to understand that nnot all stories can go into the paper.

And remember, too, that reporters are human--thatthey err and that they relish praise. Give them the benefit of the doubt.

Don't forget about the personal letter--the commendation--the quick memo inyour own hand. It is a great PR tool.

WAY I DO IT

Include letters to parents, importance of hhand written, never be afraid to rewrite the letter--or to add a point on the typed letter.

III. Conclusion

Thus we forge the communication links. I watched a church in this town try all these methods for a vacation church school. They didn't know which method would work--personal letters, word of mouth, going door to door, passing our flyers, having an ad in the paper, having stories--so they tried all of these. And everything worked--they have over 70 children in their church school--and they started with 12.

But the real key was the personal approach--the caring when the phone rang and information was asked, the caring personal notes at the end of letters, the smiles when going door todoor.

All of us care--and that caring for others means personal public relations--the kind that will make our business, organization or group a success.

MAKING PUBLIC RELATIONS WORK

While you may have someone in central office handling public relations, you still will be asked to help spread the word about education.

Here are four important rules for good media relations:

1. Be accessible. When the PR director arranges a press contact for you don't try to put it off or avoid it. Reporters work on tight deadlines, so try to arrange your schedule to meet theirs instead of expecting them to accommodate you.

2. Be realistic. As exciting as a new project, program or class may seem to you, it is possible that nearby schools are already doing something similar. If this is the case the local press may not be interested. Check with other teachers and administrators to find out what they are doing so you do not send in the same story. Also, remember to try to keep the activities of your school in perspective, and don't expect a news story for every event.

3. Be prepared. Have the facts available when you meet the press. Newspaper reporters will appreciate written background information--especially correct spellings of names, exact numbers, and so on. Pay attention to scheduling, too. If a camera crew arrives to film a parenting class, be sure the parents and children are ready.

4. Be honest. If a new program you are excited about still has some "bugs" in it, be straightforward about what the problems are and what you are doing to solve them. A good reporter will spot hesitation or attempts to cover something up and will go elsewhere for the information. It is better to be candid and get your own perspectives across then to lose your credibility and run the risk that someone less well informed than you will give false information to the press.

WHAT MAKES NEWS?

Each reporter or newscaster has a different concept of news value. If you live in a small town or region, you will receive more coverage from the local media. They will want your story. If you live in an urban area, coverage will be more difficult, but don't give up your need for media coverage.

Most news stories are built on a solid curriculum base. A survey showed that the kind of school news people are most interested in is curriculum innovations--and why they have been introduced.

Also, remember that readers or viewers like to read or hear about people. You have several human interest stories at your school. Tell about these. The people make great, interesting copy.

Often you must have a "grabber" for your story. This means a special angle that will attract the attention of the media. The solid story behind that "grabber" will give you the chance to let the public know about the real work of adult education.

Do not forget that many facts of education is important.

HOW TO DO YOUR OWN PR

Many of you do not have access to a school district PR person, so must do your press coverage. Here are some points to remember:

1. Get to know the members of the press and their needs. Keep a list of local education reporters and get to know them on a first-name basis. Find out what their particular interests are and the deadlines they face. Let them know several days in advance if you are planning a special event. This usually means at least three to four weeks. Give them as much background information beforehand as possible.

2. Play fair with the media. Send the same news release and backgrounders to everyone on your list. Set up a rotation schedule if you want to do exclusive stories with one newspaper or station at a time.

3. Practice the Golden Rule with the media. It never pays to treat a reporter poorly. Remember, the media have more clout than you do. Make members of the media feel welcome in your school. Never be patronizing toward them.

4. Be responsible and available. When a story breaks that you did not initiate, do not be afraid to be the spokesperson for your school or program. Respond promptly, courteously and accurately to inquiries from the press. Don't try to suppress a story you fear may make your school look bad. Chances are it will come out anyway, and it is better if you told the story.

Don't forget you always are "on the record" with reporters. They may print anything you say.

5. Be professional. Don't ask to see a reporter's story before it is published or to have photographs returned. Don't expect the paper to provide you with copies of a story that has appeared in print. It is up to you to obtain copies of the story.

Don't call or write to complain about relatively minor errors in the stories. Sometimes, these are the result of typesetting. DO REMEMBER to compliment media contacts on particularly good coverage. You then will be assured of coverage the next time you ask.

WHAT IF THINGS GO WRONG?

Sometimes, no matter how hard you try, something goes wrong. Don't panic. Pick up the pieces. Smile and be determined to try harder the next time.

You have to realize that you can not win them all. Sooner or later, a news story will include erroneous "facts" or take what you think is an unfavorable slant. When that happens, should you demand a retraction?

Most PR people think not. Only the most extreme of misquotes, misinterpretations, or misinformation should be called to the media's attention, and then in a constructive manner. Remember, criticizing a story that already has been aired or printed simply gives the matter greater prominence and runs the risk of damaging your carefully nourished relationship with the media.

The press and media are the watchdogs of the community. As one PR person said: "Just as a watchdog seldom bites the people it knows and trusts, the media are more likely to play fair with you if you have played fair with them."

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 24

4:30 - 5:00 PM

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HOW TO ESTABLISH AN EFFECTIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Unlike the regular educator who is handed a curriculum along with a teaching assignment, the special educator receives no such guidance. Depending on your viewpoint, this can be either a blessing or a curse; a blessing because of the latitude the absence of a curriculum provides, or a curse because of an inability to design an effective special education program. From my perspective, the lack of curriculum should be viewed as beneficial. The benefits along with guidelines to establish an effective special education program will be discussed.

Prior to obtaining a job as a special education teacher, it is important to establish a philosophy regarding the teaching of exceptional children. Without a philosophy, there is no basis for program establishment. Teacher training programs present various theories and methodologies. These ideas are only effective when integrated into a philosophy that can be translated into a program.

The prospective special education teacher must ask such questions as:

- Am I purely academic?
- Will my classes concentrate on academics to remediate deficiencies or focus on survival skills?
- Will I tutor in academic subjects to keep children mainstreamed, or will students be integrated only in classes where they can succeed with minimal assistance?
- What are my beliefs regarding teaching social skills?
- Do I believe in developmental theory, or will I concentrate on age appropriate tasks?
- Will I address ecological variables?
- What type of behavior management program will I utilize?

Before accepting a position it is important to discover if there has been a previous special education program. If a program existed, there should be materials, Individual Education Plans (IEPs) and records of successful methodology. You may also be expected to operate the program according to the previous philosophy.

This leads to another important consideration: preconceived expectations. These expectations may be based on prior programs or on an administrator's philosophy. If preconcieved expectations do not exist, you may be free to design the program according to your philosophy. If preconceived expectations coincide with your philosphy, there should be little difficulty establishing the desired program. However, if existing expectations are contrary to your philosophy there are three choices: (1) don't take the position; (2) take the position and attempt to alter expectations; or (3) work under existing expectations. Each of these options obviously has assets and liabilities that require careful consideration.

Although there is a shortage of qualified special education teachers in rural areas, the sparse population base limits the number of available positions in a given locale. Therefore, failure to accept a position may leave you without a full time teaching position. This is especially true if relocation is not a viable alternative.

Changing the way a program operates is possible. It involves working with administrators, teachers, students, and parents. It may also necessitate rewriting IEPs. Even when successful, the process of change is often long, arduous, and frustrating. It is important to remember that if the teacher is experiencing considerable stress, program effectiveness and student learning will both diminish. It is therefore imperative to carefully consider preconceived expectations and the possible ramifications of accepting the assignment.

Let us assume that you have accepted the position. You have a personal philosophy regarding special education and have communicated it to the administration who has agreed to let you operate the program in the manner you desire. The next step is to draw up a formal job description. Generally, teachers are not given job descriptions. For the regular classroom teacher, curriculum guides and standardized testing programs often delineate expectations. For special educators, personal philosophy, school district structure and parental desires impact role expectations. Some questions to consider in devising a comprehensive job description are:

- What support services are available?
- How often does the psychologist come?
- Who tests?
- What tests are used?
- Who observes referred students?
- What committee assignments (Teacher Assistance Team, child study) exist?
- When are staffings held?
- Is time allotted to meet with regular classroom teachers?
- Where does the special education teacher work (i.e. regular classroom, resource room)?
- Who coordinates the special education program for the building? The school system?
- When are students served; during study halls, in place of the class they are having difficulty with, or at a time that fits into the teacher's schedule?

Once these questions are answered, a fairly comprehensive job description should emerge. The job description should be put in writing and discussed with the administration. Certain points may have to be negotiated prior to devising an acceptable job description. The agreed upon job description is essential as it delineates role expectations, aids in establishing a work schedule and forms the basis for communicating with regular classroom teachers.

With the basis firmly established, the question of what constitutes an effective special education program arises. Your philosophy provides one key to program effectiveness. The students' IEPs provide another. The growing body of literature and knowledge concerning the effective schools movement provides yet a third.

Recently, there has been a growing interest in the relationship between the effective schools movement and special education programs. Gartner and Lipsky (1987) reviewed the research on effective schools and noted several factors that characterize effective schools. These are:

* High expectations for all students;
* Staff acceptance of responsibility for student learning;
* Instructional leadership on the part of the principal;
* A safe and orderly environment;
* A clear and focused mission concerning all goals shared by the staff; and
* Frequent monitoring of student progress.

According to Larrivee (1986) effective teaching behaviors can be grouped into four categories; classroom management and discipline, feedback during instruction, instructional appropriateness, and supportive environment. Each of these areas will be explored.

Classroom management and discipline focus on maintaining a classroom environment that is conducive to learning and facilitates active engagement of students in achieving designated goals. Bickel and Bickel (1986) explain that effective classrooms have a positive, expectant and orderly environment. They structure the learning process and manage time efficiently. In effective classrooms there is a low rate of intervention, lack of need for discipline, low student off-task time and infrequent student transition time (Larrivee, 1986). Gartner and Lipsky (1987) add the use of reinforcement to the repetoire of effective classroom management techniques.

In the second category, feedback during instruction, positive feedback, "sustained feedback", and avoidance of criticizing student responses are viewed as effective teaching behaviors (Larrivee, 1986). Bickel and Bickel (1986) believe that the detailed feedback frequently provided by effective teachers leads to further teaching.

Several reviews of the literature have focused on effective teaching behaviors associated with instructional appropriateness (Bickel and Bickel, 1986; Larrivee, 1986; Morsink, Soar, Soar, and Thomas, 1986; Gartner and Lipsky, 1987). All seem to agree that effective instruction includes direct instruction based on student learning needs. Teacher-directed instruction is presented at the appropriate level of difficulty and provides a high degree of academic engaged time and a high rate of correct responses to teacher questions. Gartner and Lipsky state that the use of reinforcement and individualized instruction are effective teaching behaviors while Morsink et al. believe that for instruction to be effective it must focus on the deficient skills rather than the underlying processes. Bickel and Bickel aver that effective teachers give many and detailed instructions and explanations when introducing a new concept and continually check for understanding in a variety of ways. They assert that grouping is effective when different groups are used for different subjects, frequent shifts occur during the year, grouping is based on current level of specific skills, various sized groupings are utilized and groupings are responsive to instruction.

Responding supportively to behaviors indicative of a learning problem, and infrequent use of punitive responses are teaching behaviors associated with supportive environments (Larrivee, 1986). Effective teachers facilitate the transfer of learning, enable students to initiate learning and provide contingent praise for appropriate behavior (Morsink et al., 1986). To facilitate integration and promote respect for handicapped students' abilities Gartner and Lipsky (1987) promote programs where handicapped students serve as tutors for both handicapped and non-handicapped students. This is important because closely integrated programs are far more productive than separate programs (Bickel and Bickel, 1986).

Wang, Rubenstein, and Reynolds (1985) found that despite considerable differences among programs "adaptive instruction" produces positive results in student achievement, attitudes and behavior. They considered a program adaptive if it had at least one of the following characteristics:

* Instruction based on assessed student abilities;
* Students work at their own pace;
* Students receive periodic reports of their learning mastery;
* Students plan and evaluate their learning;
* Alternative activities and materials are provided;
* Students have a choice of goals and activities;
* Students help each other to achieve individual and group goals.

Bickel and Bickel (1986) believe that special education should be considered a powerful administrative process. The emphasis at the school level should be on matching students with specific skill deficits with powerful instructional environments and treatments. Special education should become a data driven "educational support" and a decision making process. It should encompass assessing the instructional environment as well as the student and creating a match. Labeling would focus on the skills to be learned.

The increased empphasis on effective instruction and the relationship of this research to special education programs provides a wealth of teaching strategies that should be incorporated into all special education programs. It is apparent that effective teaching behaviors are universal regardless of the diversity of students or setting. It is therefore imperative for special education teachers to work cooperatively with regular education personnel and for special education to move beyond individualized instruction in segregated settings.

Thus, to be truly effective special education programs must establish clear and open channels of communication with all the individuals involved in educating each student. Only through trusting relationships and open communication can each and every student recieve the most effective special education program available.

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IMPROVING SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES IN RURAL KANSAS

Introduction

Kansas has long been recognized not only as an important agricultural area but also as an example of the personification of the term "rural". Accordingly, approximately 83 percent, or 253, of the 304 school districts in Kansas meet the criteria for rural devised by the United States Department of Education. As a rural state, Kansas confronts the same types of special education-related problems common to rural areas throughout the country.

Kansas faces a shortage of special education teachers. According to a survey by Jack Skillet of Emporia State University, this shortage can be attributed to a variety of causes including a decline in the number of teaching graduates from Kansas schools. His findings ascribe this decline to students seeking better paying jobs and the availabilty to women of a wider range of employment opportunities.

Traditionally, there also has been a large attrition rate in rural school districts and special education cooperatives. Projections by the Kansas State Department of Education for the 1987-1988 school year indicate a state-wide total of 159 special education vacancies. Fifty percent of these vacancies occur in rural districts. This vacancy projection reflects a 50 percent increase over vacancies reported in 1984.

Additionally, since the inception of federal and state special education legislation and accompanying regulations, there has been an increase in the number of students who qualify for and must be provided special education services. These requirements place increased demands on all school districts in a state. However, these demands often are more taxing for rural districts operating on lower tax bases, faced with staffing problems, and isolated geographically and professionally.

Costs to provide services to students with disabilities are high in rural areas of Kansas. A 1976 study by Donald Herbel indicated that the per pupil costs for students with disabilities ranged from a low of $473.62 for students with speech impairments to a high of $7076.00 for students with multiple handicaps in districts with enrollments of up to 399 students. In special education cooperatives, costs ranged from a low of $259.72 for students with speech impairments to a high of $3723.22 for teenage mother programs.

Another problem and one that relates to high educational costs, to the provision of services for students with low incidence disabilities, to the shortage of trained special education personnel, and to recruitment and retention difficulties is travel demands placed on both students and teachers in many rural areas. According to the Kansas City Times (October 26, 1987) students and teachers may travel as far as 90 miles to get to their classrooms. Students with severe disabilities are among those most often transported the longest distance. Teachers in rural areas, especially those in itinerant positions, also appear to travel the greatest amount of distances in performing their roles.

Project Intent/Impact

The Special Education Department at the University of Kansas initiated the Rural Special Education Preservice Project to address these numerous critical needs which challenge rural Kansas school districts and cooperatives seeking to provide appropriate special education services. This project is designed to favorably impact both the availability and the quality of educational programming for a wide range of rural students with disabilities. It also is designed to positively impact both the training available to rural educational personnel, and the staffing needs of rural school districts and cooperatives throughout the state. These positive effects are directly related to the ability of the project to increase staffing and maintain stability in rural districts. The needs of all targeted groups are being served through two major project components.

Project Overview

The Rural Special Education Preservice project sponsored by the Department of Special Education at the University of Kansas and funded by a three year federal grant was designed to provide special education preservice training for individuals who are currently, or may, at some time, be employed in a rural setting. The primary purpose of this project is to increase the number of appropriately certified special education teachers in rural districts and special education cooperatives in Kansas, and to maximize the liklihood that these individuals will choose to remain employed in a rural setting.

The Project is addressing these needs through two major components. The first is directed towards identifying individuals currently working in rural districts and assisting them in pursuing initial or additional certification in special education. The second component targets the development and the dissemination of rural specific information to both students and faculty members in departmental certification-track, supervision, and administation classes. The goal is to provide students who may eventually teach in rural areas with the specific information and skills necessary to perform effectively and, hopefully, on a long-term basis.

Initial funding for the project was received in 1986. The program now is in its second year of operation with accomplishments towards achieving major project purposes having been realized in both project components.

Component One

The first major component is directed specifically towards teachers currently working in rural districts and assists them in pursuing training in special education certification tracks. Participants are recruited for certification programs in special education that reflect the needs of their home districts. They are nominated by a district administrative personnel and potential nominees may be from any of the following groups:

1. Individuals, currently certified in one area of special education, who wish to obtain certification in an area for which there is higher local need (ie. EMH certified seeking ED certification).
2. Individuals, currently provisionally certified, at risk of losing that status because course work or practicum have not been completed.
3. Individuals, not provisionally certified, currently filling vacancies in special education settings.
4. Individuals, currently teaching in regular education, seeking special education certification in an area in which district administration agrees to place them when provisional certification has been achieved.

A goal of 15 participants has been established for each of the three project years. Final selection of these participants is based on the following factors and procedures:

1. Evidence that district needs will be met as a result of the individual's participation in the project as judged by the district administration's rationale for nomination.
2. Evidence that the individual is likely to be a stable and continuing member of the community as determined by a direct interview with both the nominee and the district administration.
3. Evidence that the individual is eligible to enroll in coursework and qualified to perform satisfactorily at the graduate level based on transcripts and professional recommendations.
4. The achievement of a balanced representation of districts from which nominations are made.
5. Date of application.

Participants are provided stipends that enable them to take advantage of classroom release time to attend courses at the University, as well as to participate in a 4 to 8 week school year practicum. Direct stipend payments assist participants in defraying educational and transportation costs, as well as living expenses should the participant need to relocate during practicum .

These funds serve to reinforce the participant's efforts and to encourage continued study in the field of special education.

Additionally, funds are provided on a contractual basis to participating school districts and cooperatives to cover substitute costs resulting from the participant's classroom release time. In this manner:

1. Participating teachers continue to receive their full salaries while taking part in the project;
2. Participants profit from the opportunity to experience a school-year practicum instead of the often less realistic situation of a summer school practicum;
3. Rural districts and cooperatives benefit from a cost-effective method of staff development;
4. Rural districts and cooperatives are spared the expense of substitute costs.

These funds serve to reinforce districts for supporting teachers seeking to improve their individuals skills.

Another essential ingredient of this first project component is access for teachers to an oreinting seminar specific to current, issues crucial to rural special education. Both the entire seminar and individual topic materials are made available to participants on an as-needed basis during and after project participation. By the third year of the project the seminar will be developed into a regularly scheduled course providing all departmental students with direct access to a rural-specific class. Seven seminar topics have been established based on a literature review , a review of available rural oriented materials, surveys of district and cooperative administrative personnel, as well as first year project participants, and department faculty. Seminar topics are: 1.An Overview of Rural Specific Issues as Reported in the Literature; 2.Consulting Skills/The Importance and Development of Cooperative Relationships; 3. Effective Parent/Professional Relationships ; 4.Management Skills/ Personal, Professional, Classroom-oriented; 5.Effective Use and Training of Paraprofessionals; 6.Identification and Effective Use of Local Resources; 7. Technology in Rural Special Education.

In the case of each specific seminar topic, goals and objectives,lecture materials, opportunities for group interaction and discussion, readings, resources, and a bibilography have been identified from available materials or specifically developed to match the needs of project participants. Seminar evaluation instruments and activities have also been developed and an emphasis has been placed on the value of open and on-going feedback in order to assure that the seminar continues to evolve as an appropriate and effective educational tool.

Additionally, an on-going literature review related to rural culture,issues, families, general education, and special education has been carried on during the first two years of the project and will be continued throughout project tenure. Relevant books, periodicals, journal articles, monographs, conference presentations, and other sources have been continually collected, reviewed, and abstracted. Each project participant has been provided with both annually updated copies of all abstracted materials, and an annually updated rural-oriented bibliography.

A rural special education resource center has been established in the project office for use by participants,district administrators, parents,faculty and staff members, as well as other interested parties. This resource center offers originals of all rural oriented materials on hand, as well as copies of the abstracted materials, lists of resources in rural areas and copies of rural-specific journals, books and other publications. Rural specific publications and journals have also been placed in the Special Education Library for the general use of the department.

In addition to the opportunities provided for on-campus study, independent study, an intensive practicum during the school year, and funding for participants and their home districts, project staff is now working with others in the Special Education Department to extend the availability of computer assisted instructionl courses in the attempt to reach even more teachers in rural areas.

During the first project year (1986-1987) 11 individuals participated both in coursework and practicum under the auspices of the project. Participants were in the areas of:

Severe Multiple Handicaps	5
Emotional Disturbance	2
Learning Disabilities	2
Vocational Planning & Transition	1
Early Childhood Education for the Handicapped	1

In addition, two individuals, presently teaching in a rural area but not in need practicum for certification, as well as two persons, not presently teaching in a rural district but planning to do so, also were provided with stipend funds for coursework toward certification in the areas of:

Learning Disabilities (Secondary)	2
Learning Disabilities (Elementary) with additional certification in either Emotional Disturbance or Educable Mentally Handicapped	2

Follow-up information on all first year participants indicates that ten of the 11 practicum participants have remained in their original rural home district serving a population that reflects the specific needs of the district. One individual married and left the state but continues to teach in a rural area. Of the four students who received stipend monies only,the two who were previously employed by a rural district remained in that district and the two, who were not previously teaching, accepted positions in rural areas of the state.

To this point in project year two (1986-1987) 19 individuals have been nominated for participation in either coursework or practicum. Nominees are in the areas of:

Severe Multiple Handicaps	7
Emotional Disturbance	2
Learning Disabilities	3
Trainable Mentally Handicapped	2
Early Childhood Education for the Handicapped	2
Speech	1
Special Education Administration	2

Two individuals were placed in practicum during the Fall semester of project year two. Additionally, seven students took coursework (either on campus or by independent study) towards certification. During the second semester of project year two, six individuals are participating in practica, two students are tentatively scheduled for practica, and five students are taking coursework toward certification.

At the end of the second project year it is anticipated that at least nine individuals will be fully or provisionally certified in special education:

Severe Multiple Handicaps	4
Emotional Disturbance	1
Trainable Mentally Handicapped	2
Early Childhood Education for the Handicapped	2

Participants, not yet certified, are progressing toward certification and are projected to complete practicum requirements during project year three. In addition to these continuing participants who will complete their certification training in year three, four additional participants already have been nominated for year three.

Component Two

The second major project component targets the development and dissemination of rural-specific information and materials in departmental certification-track classes, and in special education supervision and administration classes. This aspect of the project is based on the premises that: a knowledgeable faculty is requisite to effective rural teacher education and; any program designed to train individuals prepared to teach in a rural environment must go beyond the generic emphasizing skills specific to success in this environment. This component focuses on training special educators who are prepared to:

1. accept the characteristics specific to rural communities
2. perform effectively in this environment, and
3. remain in rural special education.

Activities here include the development and implementation of a faculty workshop, and the development of eight to ten modules related to specific topics in rural special education. The first full faculty workshop is scheduled for the second semester of project year two. Issues, format, and materials have been planned based on a survey distributed to faculty and rural administrators during project year one. Specific emphasized topics are Project purposes, secondary and pre-school services, certification issues, recruitment and retentions, and possible state of the art measures,

While module topics were initially similar to seminar topics, feedback from faculty and staff members, district adminstrators, and first year participants helped to focus these topic areas more specifically on perceived individual needs.

Evaluation instruments have been designed for both the faculty workshop and the individual modules. Feedback from these evaluations will be utilized to modify and improve both these instructional methods.

Evaluation Results

Evaluation data indicate satisfaction with this project is high with both participants and school district administration. The majority of the first-year participants strongly indicate they would recommend this program to others. Participant ratings were very favorable in respect to practicum experience, indicating especially high satisfaction with both the relevance of the practicum experience and the quality of the training. Service delivery methods related to application and enrollment procedures were rated somewhat lower but still in the above average satisfaction range. Participants also indicate above average satisfaction with coursework, tests, time requirements, supervision, feedback, follow-up, and stipends. Since these evaluation results were gathered from the first group of project participants, all ratings, comments, and suggestions for improvement have been incorporated if feasible.

School administrative personnel who responded to the first year evaluation also indicate high levels of satisfaction with the presentation of general project information, the training that the project afforded their teachers, and the contractual arrangements established between the project and their school districts. Areas of concern were clarity of the contractural arrangements and general clarity of the contracts themselves. These issues were not directly related to project service delivery methods. One area of concern related to service delivery, however, was provision of feedback on participant performance to school district administrative personnel. Because of this concern more feedback is being provided to administrative personnel,though in a general manner.

Overall Impact/Conclusions

The intent of the Rural Special Education Preservice Project is to train individuals who currently are, or who may, at some time, be employed in a rural special education setting. A primary purpose is to increase the numbers of appropriately trained and certified special educators in rural districts in Kansas and to maximize the probability that they will choose to remain employed in that setting. It is projected that by the end of the third project year approximately 45 teachers from rural districts will have completed or made strides toward special education certification.

This project holds the potential to make major favorable impact in several critical areas. First, the needs of rural districts and cooperatives are impacted as they are provided the opportunity for a cost-effective and efficient program of staff development. Second, the needs of students with disabilities living in rural settings are impacted as they are provided the opportunity for an appropriate education from a well trained teacher in a stable environment. Third, the needs of rural teachers are impacted because the opportunity to pursue further education and to improve oneself professionally is now open to those individuals who often previously could not continue in school because of geographic distances and financial constraints. Fourth, the needs of family members, peers, siblings, and other members of rural communities are impacted by the improvement in educational opportunity and increased future potential for the student with a disability. Fifth, the various categorical areas of special education and the faculty and staff affiliated with those areas are impacted. Because of project emphasis on faculty development, joint planning, and increased attention to the specific needs of rural special education, the already available highly recognized teacher training programs can only be improved.

Program design holds input opportunities for each of these many constituancies. This results in a cohesive, coordinated approach to delivering improved educational opportunities to rural students with disabilities. This process can be expected to improve with ongoing refinements, and to continue to enhance rural special education in answering the critical rural teacher shortage.

The following section describes some of the aspects of the Rural Special Education Preservice Project that have been instrumental in project effectiveness. These are included here to emphasize:

1. the importance of open collegial communication among all involved parties (i.e. project staff, district administration, and teacher-participants)

with and the observation of the nominee, and in consideration of district goals and objectives, a set of goals is established for each participant.

4.While accepted nominees and their home districts/cooperatives are informed of enrollment procedures for each semester of the project, assistance in enrollment is offered to participants who reside long distances from the campus. Enrollment by mail is utilized for participants who enroll in independent study courses, or who particpate only in a practicum.

5.A list of "best practices" practica sites has been developed based on project staff experience, faculty input, categorical area, and geographic location. Specific arrangements among participants, home school administration, practica site master teacher, practica site administration, and the Graduate Education Office are coordinated by project staff. Because of the actions of this project and a previous pre-service program sponsored through the Department of Special Education, it has been possible to continue to add to the list of "best practices" practica sites and by the end of this project in 1989, there should be a much wider array of quality practica sites in the rural sections of the state, thus providing future teachers the opportunity for a good practicum experience within a geographically convenient location.

6.Contractual arrangements with participating districts or cooperatives for reimbursement of substitute costs are established according to University and state contracts. These allow districts to provide release time for their nominated participants without entailing costly substitute costs for the district. This incentive to rural districts, which often operate under lower tax bases, allows these districts the opportunity for a high quality, cost-effective method of staff development.

7.Arrangements with Residential Services at both the Lawrence and Kansas City campuses have been established. Because of a wide geographical spread of both participant's home districts and practica sites, some students may be required to relocate during their practicum participation.

2. the importance of the establishment of evaluation methodology and the on-going utilization of evaluation information to assure effective service delivery and accountability.

3. the importance of the continued availability of the university as a resource for preservice and inservice training and staff development.

Specific Activities

1.Announcements of project availability and a description of major project purposes, components, and objectives are sent to each eligible school district, special education cooperative, and special education agency three times per year:

-at the end of the summer in order to be in time for fall participation
-at the end of the fall semester in order to be in time for spring participation
-in the middle of the spring semester in order to be in time for summer participation.

2.Besides these mail announcements, an announcement is placed on the Kansas Bulletin Board of SpecialNet in the fall and spring, The project coordinator also disseminates information related to the project at state-wide conferences pertinent to special education or rural issues. The coordinator also disseminates information through a network of past participants who have proven to be eager to share this information with their colleagues. Finally, notification of the project also has been aided by faculty members in the various categorical areas who often are aware of areas of extreme need within the state.

3.Active interaction with each participant is one of the cornerstones of the success of this project. From initial nomination, through application and enrollment, and participation in coursework or practicum, the project coordinator works closely with each participant and his/her district and his/her departmental faculty advisor to design a program that is in the best interests of both the participant and the school district. Pre-participation visits are made to each accepted nominee's home school where the project coordinator personally meets the nominee to discuss personal and professional goals and objectives relative to specific classroom and district goals and objectives.

The coordinator then conducts a through pre-participation assessment of the nominee's instructional skills. The assessment instrument has been designed based on the observational and evaluation forms utilized by the various categorical areas of the department. It is also utilized as a post-participation measure of skill acquisition and goal achievement. Based on the conversation

Analysis of Seven Behavioral Domains of Independent Living

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Analysis of Seven Behavioral Domains of Independent Living

The impact of handicaps on the ability to live one's life autonomously varies greatly because of many environmental and demographic factors. Clowers and Belcher (1979) indicate that the physical or mental disability interacts with factors in the external environment to increase the severity of the handicap. Such factors can include lack of public transportation (Bikson & Bikson, 1981), the availability of suitable employment (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985), or suitable housing (Lessard, 1982). Each of these can be seen as factors within rural settings which can act to restrict the independent living of those with handicaps.

The literature on independent living contains various types of definitions and conceptualizations. Unfortunately, many of these do not add much to understanding the skills and factors in the many domains of life necessary to live independently. Too often, the concerns of autonomy and life control for the person with a handicap are not addressed. Indeed, the goal of much of what is called independent living seems to refer more to developing skills within the individual to relieve the care-giving burden on others, rather than promoting a life free of constraints imposed by others. Much of the conceptualization of independent living comes from the research on persons with mental retardation, which focuses on aspects of life such as personal hygiene, self-care, or functional mathematics (e.g., Rusch, Chadsey-Rusch, White, & Gifford, 1985).

In a recent literature review on independent living, Harnisch, Fisher, Kacmarek, and DeStefano (1987) found that more than one-half of the articles were devoted to studies based on samples of persons with mental retardation. The definitions used in these research articles did not provide a clear picture that could aid an understanding of the mechanisms that underlie successful transition to independence within our society, nor the constraints which are faced by those with handicaps in trying to make this transition.

To formulate a better understanding of independent living, a definition has been derived to cover various aspects of one's life by identifying a number of critical domains to life where the person has to have skills, or will face various challenges from the external environment. These domains are: 1) self-care and advocacy skills, 2) accommodation and living arrangements, 3) employment, education, and training, 4) transportation and mobility, 5) generic community services, 6) recreation and leisure activities, and 7) community interaction (Harnisch, Chaplin, Fisher, & Tu, 1986).

In the development of this definition, Harnisch et al. (1986) were concerned with a broader conceptualization that could be applied differentially depending upon the handicapping condition of the person, or because of the various external factors which impinge upon the life of the person. The use of such a definition can facilitate the growth programs and the modification of curricula to best serve the interests of the development of full autonomy and control for those with handicaps over their lives.

In this study, we have analyzed our definition's component parts, in order to derive scales to be used to differentiate between groups with specific handicaps, and between those with and without handicaps. This facilitates the identification of those areas of special needs that can be best addressed within the education framework. Thus, we wish to assist in overcoming the most pressing difficulties which restrict the growth of true independence of those who have disabilities.

Method

Subjects

The subjects for this study were the 14,553 students drawn from the 1980 sophomore cohort of American high school students who were surveyed by for the High School and Beyond (HSB) National Longitudinal Survey (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1986). Of these, 7185 were males and 7368 females, and 3758 identified themselves as having one of: learning disabilities, hearing orthopedic, speech, or other health impairments. These students were each surveyed in the base year, and the two subsequent biennial follow-ups.

Procedure

Items were selected from the three survey questionnaires and distributed to 12 experts in the areas of independent living, special education and rehabilitation. These judges indicated to which of the seven domains of independent living each item belonged. If it belonged to a domain not represented in the definition it was assigned to the "Other" category, and if it did not measure independent living at all it was placed in the "Not applicable" category). As many items had more than one component variable, judges could assign these items to more than one category.

To be assigned to an independent living domain, an item had to receive a majority of the judges' votes. Those which were assigned to the "Not applicable" category, or which failed to receive a majority assignment to a particular category were dropped from further analysis. Those items which had more than one component variable were individually evaluated and each variable was assigned to its appropriate independent living domain.

Analyses

The items retained were factor analyzed within their independent living domains in order to derive scales which could be used to assess group differences. Oblique rotations using the promax method were employed to derive the factor loading patterns. As there were so few items in the transportation and mobility and the generic services domains, they were excluded from the analyses.

The derived scales were used to assess several group differences. Comparisons were conducted between the following: those with handicaps and their nonhandicapped peers; the five specific handicapping conditions groups--learning disabilities (LD), hearing impairments (HI), speech impairments (SI), orthopedic impairments (OI), and other health impairments (OH); and rural and non-rural youth with handicaps.

Results

Demographics

Table 1 presents the distribution of youth with handicaps, and those without by ethnicity and type of community in which they live. In the cities, Hispanic (28%) and Black (20%) youth are more represented than in the rural areas with 22% of Hispanics and only 8% Blacks. In rural areas, there is a much higher percentage of white youth with handicaps (65%) than in the cities (49%). These figures indicate that the two locations have very different ethnic compositions of students with handicaps.

Another comparison of the differences between the handicapped populations of rural and non-rural schools is provided in Table 2. This table breaks down the handicapping conditions by ethnicity and type of community. In rural areas, Hispanics represent 40.7% of those with learning disabilities, and only 29.8% in the cities. Similar differences occur with speech (44.3% to 36%) and orthopedic (34.8% to 25%) impairments. Blacks are more represented for all handicapping conditions in the city schools.

The largest handicapping condition reported in both areas is other health impairments--chronic or acute health problems that limit vitality or alertness, such as tuberculosis, sickle cell anemia, or diabetes (Burgdorf, 1980). Of the sample of 3008 with valid ethnicity, urbanicity, and handicapping condition data, 1280 (42.6%) reported other health impairments.

Factor Analyses

The items previously assigned to independent living domains by the expert judges were factor analyzed within their respective domains to develop scales to assess those aspects of independent living. An iterative principal factor solution was obtained using squared multiple correlations as initial communality estimates and an oblique rotation using the promax method.

Items with a factor loading above .30 were included. If an item loaded above .30 on more than one factor, the item was assigned to the factor of highest loading. Items which were theoretically consistent with the bulk of the items in a scale were retained. Table 3 presents the factors within each of the domains, and a brief explanation of each factor.

Once the factor analyses were completed, the factors were transformed to facilitate their use as scales to assess independent living across the range of domains. This was done by standardizing the factors so that each had a mean value of 50 and standard deviation of 10 for the population. The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was used to estimate the reliability of each standardized scale (based on a common scale length of 40 items). The resulting reliability estimates ranged from .89 to .99, with a median of .95. (For a detailed description of the reliability calculations for each scale see: Harnisch et al, *Digest on Youth in Transition*, Vol. 2.)

Rural Versus Non-Rural Youth with Handicaps

The rural and non-rural youth were compared on each of the derived independent living scales using a t-test. The results of these are shown in Table 4 (" D" is the difference between group means, and positive values favor city students, negative favor rural students). As can be seen from Table 4, rural youth lag behind their city counterparts in a number of areas, but also lead in the following domains: church participation, work experience, extracurricular clubs and sports, household composition, and tax exemption status.

In the domain of self-advocacy and skills, the rural youth with handicaps are seen to be trailing their city peers in both the areas of computer skills (t = 2.73, p<.01) and the ability to find and use information (t = 5.14, p<.001). Both of these could be problems which could severely limit the future employment and educational opportunities of these rural youth (especially as one notes that the city youth are already below the population mean on these scales).

In the education, training, and employment domain rural youth have significantly more work experience than do their city peers (t = -5.22, p<.001), which may be because of leaving school at earlier ages. However, they trail in the areas of career expectations (t = 7.09, p<.001), and post-secondary education expectations (t = 3.68, p<.001). These two can be seen to relate to the adult milestones scale where the country youth expect to achieve adult milestones at significantly younger ages than do the city youth with handicaps (t = 5.15, p<.001). However, achieving such milestones too early can lead to a lack of future opportunities by denying the access to education and training received by those who delay the milestones.

In their awareness of, or participation in, special education programs rural youth with handicaps are at another disadvantage to their city counterparts ($\underline{t} = 2.36$, $p<.05$). This latter point raises questions of the availability of these programs to rural youth.

Rural youth with handicaps were at an advantage in several areas. They were significantly more involved in extracurricular clubs ($\underline{t} = -2.39$, $p<.05$), and extracurricular sports ($\underline{t} = -1.93$, $p<.05$) . This may be indicative of a more accepting population in the smaller towns and localities. Additionally, they were more likely to live with their families ($\underline{t} = -4.58$, $p<.001$), but less likely to be a tax exemption for their parents ($\underline{t} = -2.57$, $p<.01$), which may indicate that they were in full-time employment but still living at home.

In order to understand the differences between the rural and city youth with handicaps on these scales of independent living, a discriminant function analysis was conducted. To do so, 10 groups were constructed that represented the urbanicity by specific handicapping condition of the subjects, e.g, rural learning disabilities, city hearing impairments. The 19 independent living scales were used as predictor variables in this model.

The results of the significant discriminant analysis showed that there are two functions present in the data which accounted for approximately 70% of the variance. A third function accounted for slightly less than 8% more. The standardized canonical coefficients for these two functions are shown in Table 4. Examining the two significant function values shows that the first independent living function is represented by high weights on the career expectations, resource utilization, and computer skills scales. These scales have been shown to differentiate between the rural and non-rural youth with handicaps. This first function seems to reflect an Achievement Orientation.

The second independent living function is characterized by involvement in extracurricular clubs and the work experience scales. Additional independent living domains represented in this function include: household composition, tax exemptions, and church participation. In summary, the second function describes an Affiliation Dimension of independent living.

The centroids from the canonical correlations are plotted for the 10 groups in Figure 1. On the Achievement Orientation function, both city orthopedic and other health impairments groups (4 and 5) are found to have high scores, and the rural learning disabilities (6), hearing impairment (7), and speech impairment (8) groups have quite low scores. This function basically discriminates between city orthopedic and health impairment groups versus the other handicapping conditions in the rural settings, and demonstrates that the achievement orientation is more evident in the city orthopedic and health impaired groups than in any of the rural groups.

The affiliation function, is characterized by the high scores of the rural orthopedic impairments group (9), and the low scores of the city learning disabilities (1) and speech impairment (3) groups. Three other groups, the rural health (0) and speech (7) impairment groups, and the city health impairment groups have moderately positive scores.

The class mean values for each of the scales are shown in Table 5. (These mean values should be read as their deviations from the population mean of 50 and standard deviation of 10.) By doing this, one can see that the youth with handicaps in both areas show substantial differences from the population means on many scales, for example, on the extracurricular clubs scale the rural orthopedic impairment group scores 55.06, one-half standard deviation above the population mean. In addition, the rural youth with handicaps are often much lower than their city peers (e.g., on career expectations the city learning disabilities group scores 45.37--almost one-half a standard deviation below the mean--and the rural learning disabilities group is at 42.56).

An examination of the means in Table 5 shows patterns of differences between the rural and non-rural youth with specific handicaps. The values for resource utilization show that in the city learning disabled (46.74) and speech disabled (47.81) students are quite low in comparison to the population mean (50), and the same students in the rural schools are much below the city students (LD--44.64, SI--45.62). Similar clear differences can be seen in the career expectation factor, with most city groups being much below the population mean, and the rural students much below the city ones (rural: LD--42.56, HI--44.89, SI--44.03).

There are also areas in which the values for the rural youth exceed those of the city. In church participation, the rural youth score at, or above, the population mean, while most of the city groups are below. This also emerged in the tax exemption and household composition scales. The rural youth tended to live away from their families more, but were more likely to be listed as tax exemptions. This may indicate a need to relocate for special education or rehabilitation resources.

The idea of special education programming is addressed in the awareness of special education programs scale. On this scale, all city groups reported scores above the population mean, but three of the rural groups were below it. This may indicate a

need for programs not being met for certain student groups in the rural areas. This may be reflected on the adult milestones scale where the city youth expect to achieve these milestones at younger ages than the average (e.g., LD--48.12, HI--47.37), and rural youth even younger (LD--44.48, HI--46.70, SI--45.76). While this can be regarded as a sign of early independence, taking on such adult responsibilities too early can deprive the person of many of the advantages of further education and training.

Two groups with handicaps showed dissimilar patterns to their peers. This is especially true for those with orthopedic impairments, but also for those with other health impairments. On Figure 1, those with orthopedic impairments (4 and 9) formed their own outlier group, scoring consistently above average on the two independent living discriminant functions.

Discussion

The results reported demonstrate the differences assessed in independent living between the youth with handicaps in rural and non-rural schools, and that these differences may have significant impacts on the ways in which these students will be able to lead their adult lives. There are also many similarities in the ways in which they have responded to the items, but often these are still below the average levels for the population studied.

The overall pattern of findings show that youth with handicaps are below the average on many aspects of life that they will need to master to be able to lead lives as productive and independent adults. On many of these scales, they are seen as not being able to achieve to the same level as their nonhandicapped peers, which places them in jeopardy for their later attempts at success.

Not only are youth with handicaps not achieving at as high a level as their peers, but their aspirations for the future are also much lower. Fisher and Harnisch (1987) found that those with handicaps expressed lower career expectations, and these were supported by lower the expectations of their parents, teachers, and significant others around them. Thus, building in limitations rather than possibilities. for future life success.

More important than the generalized findings are the specific differences which are found by handicapping condition within each of these locations. One can see that, by using these independent living scales, differing strengths and needs are identified for each condition. In this way, curricula can be rethought in such ways as to promote independent growth within those realms which are presently lacking, and to build on those

which are strengths. This could allow for the redirection of resources into newer programs which serve identified needs, rather than more general goals--specifically important when one considers the uneven distribution of handicapping conditions between locations.

When one considers the distribution of specific handicapping conditions between locations, one must also consider the make-up of the groups with these handicaps, and the best ways in which they may be served. The demographic data showed that in rural schools large proportions of those with learning disabilities (40.7%) and speech impairments (44.3%) are Hispanics. But, as Bernal (1983) has indicated, many schools which do not have funds for limited English students include them in the special education classes, serving neither the limited English nor the handicapped students adequately.

Summary

The presentation of the definition and the development of independent living scales are based on the notions of autonomy, personal control, and empowerment of the individual with handicaps. The scales can be used to identify both strengths and weaknesses within specific handicapping conditions, and within certain demographic groups who may be a part of the special education population. Both of these have been demonstrated by examining the comparisons between the rural and city students.

The derivation of independent living scales has been shown to be a useful way in identifying the differences between rural and city youth with handicaps. The t-tests and discriminant functions showed that rural youth with handicaps scored above their city counter parts in family and affiliation areas. A positive sign for those who need even more support in their striving for growth and development. There are several other domains in which the rural youth with handicaps were seen to trail the city counterparts, as well as the general population. However, one interesting finding is the extremely positive adaptation of the rural students with orthopedic impairments who scored well above the population mean on many scales.

Use of independent living scales could serve several educational purposes and provide the basis for policy formulation and review. By use of the definition, we have tried to highlight the different domains in which a person must have skills in order to live independently in our society. The scales have further refined the definition, and allow research and evaluation activities to assess the needs of the population of a school district, the curriculum, and the allocation of funds to special programs.

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Table 1. Number and Percentage of Handicapped (H/C) and Nonhandicapped (N-H/C) Students by Ethnicity and Community Type (N = 14,447)

		Hispanic		American Indian		Asian		Black		White		Total
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
City	H/C	573	28	44	2	28	1	407	20	1001	49	2053
	N-H/C	1913	22	122	1	362	4	1319	15	4979	57	8695
Rural	H/C	177	22	29	4	5	1	68	8	512	65	791
	N-H/C	529	18	92	3	26	1	206	7	2055	71	2908

Table 2. Frequency of Handicapping Conditions By Ethnicity and Community Type (N = 3008)

		Hispanic		American Indian		Asian		Black		White		Total
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
LD	City	118	29.8	10	2.5	21	5.3	68	17.2	179	45.2	396
	Rural	63	40.7	14	9.0	3	1.9	9	5.8	66	42.6	155
HI	City	121	33.7	11	3.1	9	2.5	47	13.1	171	47.6	359
	Rural	56	35.9	13	8.3	5	3.2	10	6.4	72	46.2	156
SI	City	99	36.0	9	3.3	15	5.5	54	19.6	98	35.6	275
	Rural	47	44.3	3	2.8	3	2.8	5	4.7	48	45.3	106
OI	City	48	25.0	1	0.5	1	1.6	23	12.0	117	60.9	192
	Rural	31	34.8	1	1.1	4	4.5	2	2.3	51	57.3	89
OH	City	228	24.4	21	2.3	29	3.1	184	19.7	473	50.6	935
	Rural	90	26.1	7	2.0	2	0.6	43	12.5	203	58.8	345

Key: LD--Learning Disabilities, HI--Hearing Impairments, SI--Speech Impairments, OI--Orthopedic Impairments, OH--Other Health Imp.

Source: High School and Beyond, 1984.

Table 3. Independent Living Domains and Factors

Self-Advocacy and Maintenance Skills

Factor I, Computer Skills. A high score is associated with experience with computer hardware and software.

Factor II, Resource Utilization. Questions assess skills necessary for gathering and using information, applying for jobs, college admission, etc.

Factor III, Technological Skills. A high score indicates experience in operating a variety of electronic equipment.

Factor IV, Life-style orientation. Questions assess the importance of various factors in living one's life.

Factor V, Academic Organization. Assesses the student's organization of class materials and his/her willingness to work hard in school.

Living Arrangements

Factor I, Financial Support. Scores reflect the amount of financial support provided by the family.

Factor II, Household Composition. A high score indicates that the student did not live with his/her family.

Factor III, Tax Exemption. Indicates whether a person was listed as a tax exemption by parents.

Factor IV, Adult Milestones. Scores reflect ages at which the person expects to attain each of a number of adult milestones (e.g., getting first job, finishing school, getting married). Lower scores indicate attainment at younger ages.

Community Integration

Factor I, Group Participation. A high score indicates active participation in group activities or leadership.

Factor II, Social Roles. A high score reflects the student's belief that others see him/her positively.

Factor III, Social Activities. Reflects how often the person engages in various social activities (e.g. dating, talking on phone to friends).

Factor IV, Church Participation. Scores reflect the level of church attendance and involvement in church activities.

Leisure and Recreation

Factor I, Extracurricular Clubs. Scores reflect the level of involvement in extracurricular clubs.

Factor II, Extracurricular Sports. Scores reflect the amount of involvement in athletic teams.

Education, Training, and Employment

Factor I, Work Experience. A high score indicates that the student has held job for pay and acquired work experience.

Factor II, Career Expectations. This is primarily associated with plans for, and behavior during, the first year after leaving school. High scores are associated with post-secondary education, while low scores reflect getting a job or becoming a homemaker.

Factor III, Post-secondary Education. This scale represents the type of post-secondary education being sought. High scores indicate planning for, and enrolling in, a four year college. Low scores are associated with vocational training. SCores in the middle of the range are associated with youth not seeking post-secondary education.

Factor IV, Awareness of Special Programs. Scores reflect the awareness of, and participation in, special high school programs.

Table 4. Comparisons of Rural and Non-Rural Youth on Independent Living Scales and Standardized Canonical Coefficients (n_c = 1814, n_r = 703)

					Discriminant Functions	
Scale	M_{City}	M_{Rural}	D	t	I	II
Computer Skills	49.59	48.48	1.11	2.73^{**}	0.20	0.16
Resource Util.	49.51	46.99	2.52	5.14^{***}	0.38	-0.04
Technological Sks.	48.69	48.26	0.43	0.84	0.09	0.37
Life-style Orient.	48.27	47.83	0.44	0.82	0.14	0.10
Academic Org.	48.16	47.82	0.34	0.68	0.04	0.09
Group Particip.	50.16	49.69	0.47	1.07	0.04	-0.08
Social Roles	49.70	48.74	0.96	1.97^{*}	0.02	-0.26
Social Activities	50.24	49.63	0.61	1.30	0.12	0.02
Church Particip.	49.83	50.41	-0.58	1.29	0.07	0.23
Extracurric Clubs	49.84	50.91	-1.07	-2.39^{*}	0.04	0.51
Extracurric Sports	49.50	50.35	-0.85	-1.93^{*}	-0.37	-0.02
Financial Support	49.58	48.95	0.65	1.46	0.10	0.05
Household Comp.	49.12	50.92	-1.80	-4.58^{***}	-0.14	0.35
Tax Exemption	49.52	50.43	-0.91	-2.57^{**}	-0.13	0.34
Adult Milestones	49.17	46.73	2.40	5.15^{***}	-0.01	-0.13
Work Experience	50.34	52.37	-1.04	-5.22^{***}	-0.13	0.42
Career Expectations	48.62	45.43	3.19	7.09^{***}	0.65	-0.07
Post-secondary Ed.	49.40	47.89	1.51	3.68^{***}	0.14	-0.20
Spec. Programs.	51.54	50.34	1.20	2.36^{*}	0.10	-0.19

$^{*}p<.05$ $^{**}p<.01$ $^{***}p<.001$

Source: High School and Beyond, 1984.

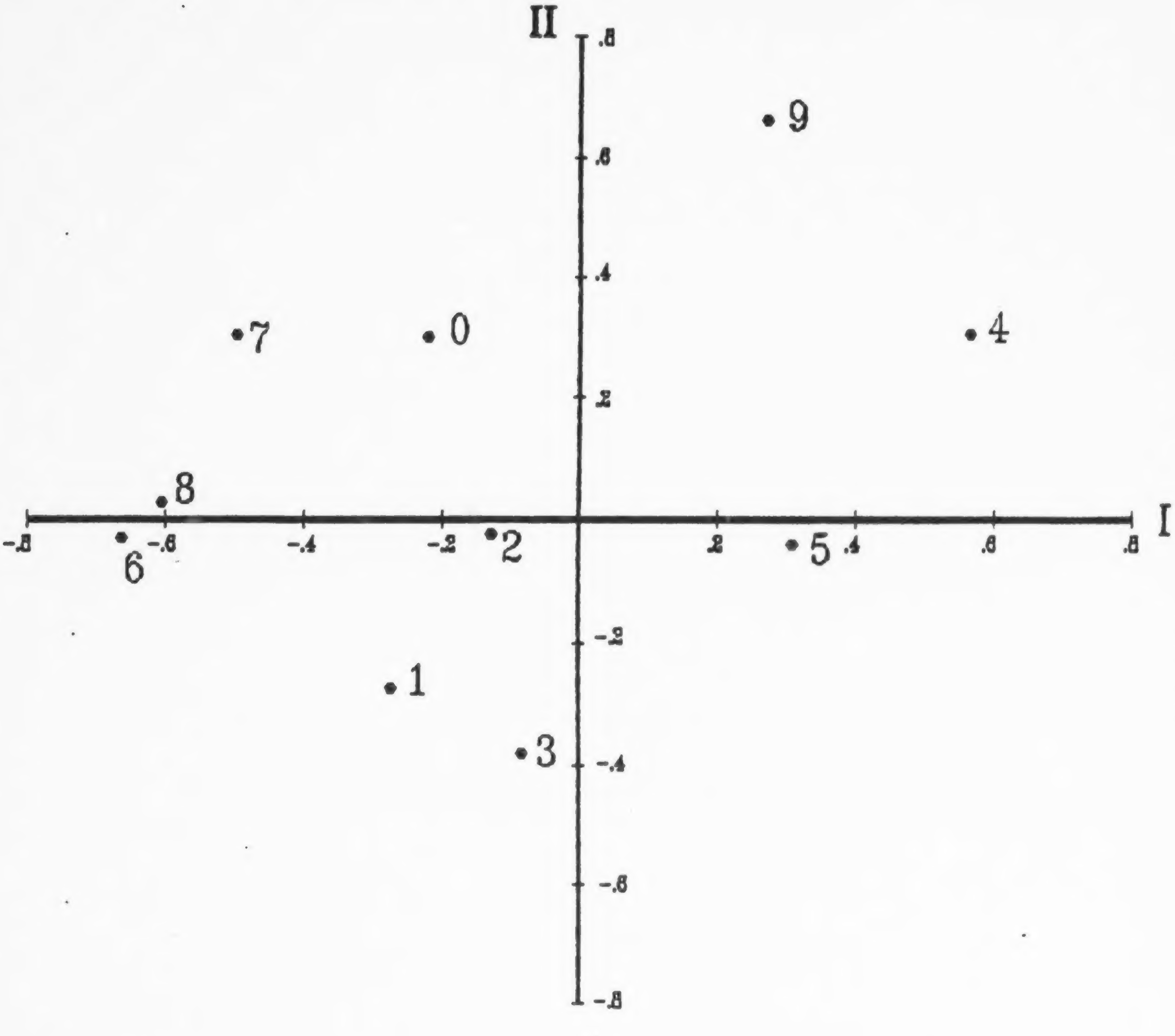
Table 5. Class Means for Independent Living Scales
By Community Type and Handicapping Condition

	City					Rural				
	LD	HI	SI	OI	OH	LD	HI	SI	OI	OH
Sample size	(396)	(359)	(275)	(192)	(935)	(155)	(156)	(106)	(89)	(345)
Scale										
Computer Sks.	47.30	48.49	48.17	52.55	50.37	46.17	48.56	47.22	50.65	49.00
Resource Use.	46.74	48.99	47.81	52.07	50.39	44.64	45.90	45.62	50.05	47.78
Techno. Sks.	45.91	48.61	45.80	52.20	49.57	46.18	48.66	45.35	51.00	48.88
Life-style	46.60	45.94	47.94	49.94	49.17	48.52	45.53	45.52	49.33	48.66
Academic Org.	46.73	45.92	47.76	48.46	49.20	47.27	45.46	46.80	50.41	48.51
Group Parti.	48.37	49.48	48.89	51.24	50.95	47.03	51.07	46.83	50.92	50.44
Social Roles	48.33	49.28	50.80	49.76	49.92	46.37	49.88	49.58	49.35	48.73
Social Acts.	50.24	51.33	48.03	50.66	50.58	49.64	50.62	47.29	47.55	50.23
Church Parti.	48.50	48.77	48.79	53.17	50.19	48.64	50.52	50.01	50.65	50.92
Extra. Clubs	47.81	49.92	49.07	50.88	50.37	47.51	50.95	48.51	55.06	51.66
Extra. Sports	48.89	50.38	50.71	49.31	49.17	49.80	52.96	49.91	49.44	49.92
Fin. Support	49.74	48.91	48.94	50.18	49.78	48.10	50.93	48.35	50.32	48.41
Household	48.62	49.54	48.89	49.20	49.17	50.15	51.07	51.07	54.29	50.44
Tax Exemp.	50.02	49.74	48.79	51.81	49.12	49.43	51.43	50.23	52.08	50.12
Milestones	48.12	47.37	48.85	51.10	49.71	44.48	46.70	45.76	49.56	47.09
Work Exper.	50.35	51.51	49.54	51.28	50.06	50.95	52.77	52.88	51.45	52.70
Career Exp.	45.37	46.63	47.83	52.10	49.67	42.56	44.89	44.03	51.47	45.63
Post-Sec. Ed.	47.30	48.24	50.18	50.45	49.95	47.47	48.53	46.44	49.76	47.78
Spec. Progs.	51.40	51.39	51.30	52.46	51.52	49.72	49.41	51.86	48.81	50.77

Key: LD--Learning Disabilities, HI--Hearing Impairments, SI--Speech Impairments, OI--Orthopedic Impairments, OH--Other Health Impairments.

Source: High SChool and Beyond, 1984.

Centroids on Two Independent Living Functions for Ten Handicap Groups



Legend:

- City
  - 1 Learning Disabilities
  - 2 Hearing Impairments
  - 3 Speech Impairments
  - 4 Orthopedic Impairments
  - 5 Other Health Impairments
- Rural
  - 6 Learning Disabilities
  - 7 Hearing Impairments
  - 8 Speech Impairments
  - 9 Orthopedic Impairments
  - 0 Other Health Impairments

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ABSTRACT

Proposals for Extended Teacher Education:
Rural/Urban Attitudes of Teachers and Teacher Educators

Theme Area: Challenges for Rural Special Educators

Changes are taking place across the nation regarding the way America's teachers are trained. These changes have come from within Colleges of Education and have been further spurred by national reports which are critical of teacher education. Both the Carnegie Forum (A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century May, 1986) and the Holmes Group (Tomorrow's Teachers 1986) have recommended (a) greater emphasis on academic subject matter training for teacher, (e.g., in natural science, social science, humanities, etc.), (b) placing professional education courses in a fifth or graduate year, and (c) increasing standards for entry into the teaching profession. Already a number of Schools of Education across the nation have instituted required five year teacher preparation programs, among them the University of Virginia, and the University of Kansas. In California, state law requires a fifth year of study for teacher certification, the first four years being in liberal arts. In Texas, the legislature passed a bill that will in effect abolish undergraduate teacher education degree programs. The bill limits certification requirements in teacher education to 18 undergraduate hours, including student teaching.

In response to these changes and proposals we surveyed faculty and graduate students in teacher education programs at 30+ institutions in the South Central United States. These institutions were about equally divided as to rural and urban constituency. The instrument used was previously developed and factor analyzed on a similar population (Bull, Warner, Yellin, 1987). The instrument provides four factors need for liberal arts courses, need for extended programs, content of extended programs and satisfaction with existing system. Data will be presented to highlight the differences between teachers in rural and urban settings and the differences between faculty in rural and urban teacher training institutions.

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QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCES AMONG SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN RURAL, REGIONAL, AND METROPOLITAN AREAS IN A SOUTHEASTERN STATE

This investigator will examine differences between special programs in three rural impoverished school districts, two regional population centers(population greater than 30,000) and two metropolitan areas (population centers greater than 300,000) located in a southeastern state. The three rural impoverished school districts are located in counties identified as among the 99th percentile rankings on a rural poverty index scale related to the 1960 census data and developed by a federal agency. Variables standardly included in the state superintendent's annual report which review number of students served, number by categories, service delivery models, qualifications of personnel, ancillary services, consortia agreements, out of school placements, out of state placements, and other data which indicate growth of programs since the inception of P.L. 94-142 will be analyzed.

In addition to the standard data in the state superintendent's report, quantitative and qualitative measures related to staff and faculty measures of education, training, in-service opportunities will be compared. Sample IEP's will be quantitatively and qualitatively evaluated following a guide established by the state for state monitoring procedures.

Finally, a standardized measure of stress and a university developed questionnaire related to stress/frustration/burn-out factors will will be administered to a random sample of professionals and paraprofessionals from the seven different groups.

The major purpose of the study is to determine if there are significant quantitative and/or qualitative differences between rural special education programs and their counterparts in regional centers and cities. The major objectives will focus on discerning reasons for the differences, if they exist (preliminary studies indicate existence of significant differences). A special focus will examine differences between faculty/staff related to stress/frustration measures and the relationship to quantitative/qualitative differences. Additionally, a major objective will be to determine if there are differences among the rural districts, indicating positive directions for rural districts to pursue to improve programs for special education students. The rural focus is apparent. The theme area is CHALLENGES FOR RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATORS and is directed toward, finding teachers who will stay, determining why some leave or would leave if they had the chance, helps future special educators prepare for rural teaching assignments, and contributes to the research and evaluation literature in this theme area.

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A THREE YEAR FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF RESOURCE SPECIALIST TEACHERS IN NORTHEASTERN CALIFORNIA

Teacher Education's Impact on Least Restrictive Environment Policy

Under the California Master Plan for Special Education of 1974, the role of the Resource Specialist Teacher (RST) was created. In 1981, the California legislature mandated the training and certification of RSTs. The RST's functional role encompasses direct instruction, consultation, assessment, inservice for regular teachers, coordination of special education services, parent education, and vocational or prevocational education.

The California legislature has recently become concerned with the growth in the number of individuals identified as learning disabled, who are being placed in resource specialist programs. A statewide learning disabilities evaluation study, administered by the Office of the Legislative Analyst, is now being conducted to address three areas of concern: (1) resources directed toward identification and assessment, and away from instruction; (2) the possibility of "misidentification," based on improper test administration; and (3) the cost effectiveness of resource specialist programs (State of California 1987).

My follow-up study indicates that these problems are not the fault of the RST, but rather the implementation of special education policy at the local education agency level. In particular, the least restrictive environment (LRE) policy is not generally being implemented as intended by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142) or the California Master Plan for Special Education.

RURAL FOCUS

California State University, Chico (CSU, Chico) serves a twelve county region in northeastern California. This region, nearly the size of the state of Ohio, is primarily rural, sparsely populated, and mountainous. From July 1984 through June 1987, CSU, Chico received federal funds from the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education of the U.S. Department of Education to develop and implement the RST training program. The RST training program provided employed teachers with instruction over a two semester period, through ten one-unit modules, for six hours on Saturdays. The CSU, Chico Regional Instructional Television for Students (ITFS) System was used to deliver the RST training program to outlying areas up to 200 miles from campus. This delivery system enabled the project to involve teachers who, for reason of local district policy, distance, and geographic location, would have otherwise had no opportunity to complete state-mandated RST training requirements.

The rural character of northeastern California exacerbates the already difficult problem of providing adequate and effective education for all handicapped children. Research documents the unique problems of rural special education, which dramatically increases the cost per unit of education. The CSU, Chico service region experiences many of these same effects: high turnover rates among teachers, climatic conditions (mountainous terrain with inclement winter weather), professional isolation, and the resistance to change which frequently pervades rural settings (Helge 1981). A major economic factor to impact this rural area was an erosion of the tax base for education, a direct result of the passage of Proposition 13 in 1978, which substantially reduced property taxes -- at that time a major source of funding for education in California.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to conduct a follow-up study, as part of a three year program evaluation, and to assess the current status of former RST project participants. The overall evaluation plan was used to determine if the RST training program was an effective method for alleviating the shortage of "qualified" resource specialist teachers in northeastern California. The evaluation results confirmed that the RST training program was an effective method for training rural RSTs.

The purpose of the follow-up study was to identify the number of former students who had received their clear RST certificate by June 1987, and to assess the impact of the RSTs' training on the education of students with exceptional needs in the least restrictive environment. Further, the follow-up study was used to examine key policy issues, such as caseload size, time spent on the various RST functions, and inclusion of state-mandated RST functions within job descriptions.

OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of the follow-up study was to assess the impact of inservice education--in this case, intensive training focusing on RST functional roles--on students with exceptional needs in resource specialist programs who are required to receive their education in the least restrictive environment. **Does the RST certificate mandate effectively alter the implementation of the least restrictive environment policy?** This was the compelling question to be answered by the follow-up study. Information was collected and analyzed which substantiated that this is not the case in some rural schools in northeastern California.

THE PROBLEM

According to Haight (1984), the training of teacher consultants to work with regular classroom teachers is critical to the least restrictive environment component of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. When handicapped children are mainstreamed into regular classrooms, the major role for the teacher consultant, or the RST in California, should be indirect services, which are services not provided directly to the students, but from which they will benefit. Consultation, therefore, is a service necessary for the integration of handicapped children into regular education settings, or normalization (Haight 1984; Jenkins and Mayhall 1976). The integrated RST training program was developed to increase the RSTs' ability to assist regular classroom teachers in providing handicapped students with an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment.

The California Education Code clearly defines both direct and indirect services to be provided by RSTs. However, the responsibility of assigning these duties is left up to the local education agencies, i.e. the school or school district. The policy implications are significant. First of all, variance in job descriptions, or the lack of job descriptions, for RSTs creates such diversity that a standardized RST curriculum (based on the state mandates) does not meet the needs of teachers currently employed as RSTs, special educators with RST responsibilities, or regular classroom teachers training to be RSTs to meet local needs. Secondly, the broad variation in implementation of RST functions at the local level ignores the critical need for the teacher consultant role which provides services that are meant to ensure an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment.

As part of the normalization process, the role of the resource specialist teacher as consultant and coordinator becomes paramount to instructional activities. Caseload size, therefore, becomes a critical issue. If the caseload is too large or entails primarily direct instruction, then the RST does not have sufficient time to devote to consultation with regular classroom teachers, or to provide needed inservice training.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Least Restrictive Environment: Impact of Teacher Education

> "We are in a period of deep renegotiation of relations between 'special' and 'regular' education...A major principle operating in the changes is that of the 'least restrictive environment,' which in effect calls for the strengthening of regular school programs as a resource for exceptional students." (Foreword by Dr. Maynard Reynolds, Weisenstein and Pelz 1986, xi)

The central issue in the implementation of public policy for special education is the least restrictive environment (LRE). Of all the principles underlying P.L. 94-142 and the California Master Plan for Special Education, the least restrictive environment policy at the school site level is the most relevant to the resource specialist teacher program.

Prior to least restrictive environment policy, the "two-box model" was in effect, which exemplifies the bifurcation of educational services into regular and special education. The "two-box" model is not acceptable under the least restrictive environment policy. Least restrictive environment policy is best implemented using a continuum of services (Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin 1986; Weisenstein and Pelz 1986).

One aspect of the least restrictive environment policy is the need for a consultant role. Regular classroom teachers are not prepared to provide instructional adaptations for handicapped students. And special education teachers have traditionally been on the periphery, or outside, of the school organization. There is clearly a need for someone who can bridge the gap created by the bifurcation of regular and special education. The consultant teacher role and the resource specialist teacher evolved as outgrowths of public policy change regarding education of the handicapped.

"Within the relevant historical, legislative, empirical, and ethical contexts, collaboration among personnel with varied expertise becomes the *sine qua non* of providing successful services in more normalized environments for students with special needs" (Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin 1986, 40). The consultation model affects all aspects of the process to serve handicapped students. The consultation process at the school site level is essential to the establishment of cooperative efforts between regular classroom teachers and resource specialist teachers.

The relationship between regular and special educators as embodied in the teacher consulting model is critical because it "facilitate[s] student success in the least restrictive environment" (Haight 1984). Haight confirms the need for the consultant teacher role, stating that there is a "need for an individual whose role encompasses skilled, multifaceted diagnosis, multidisciplinary coordination, and synthesis of information into a plan of intervention." The trained RST is such an individual.

Miller and Sabatino (1978) evaluated the teacher consultant model as an approach to mainstreaming. The purpose of the Miller and Sabatino study was to investigate the effectiveness of the teacher consultant model by comparing it to the resource room model with mildly handicapped students.

Their results showed no significant differences in academic achievement between the two models; however, they felt the teacher consultant model was effective because academic gains were "on par" with the direct service approach provided by the resource room model. Further, in comparing student-teacher interactions between fall and spring, they found measures of teacher behavior improvement were more frequently observed in the teacher consultant model.

Singleton (1976) studied the role of the RST in increasing positive attitudes among regular teachers toward having learning disabled and emotionally disturbed students in their classroom. Observations were made of two teacher training methods: workshop, and direct assistance in the classroom. Her findings indicated that the direct assistance approach was the most effective, and created significant differences in teacher attitudes.

Given all the expectations of the resource specialist teacher, it is not surprising the California State Department of Education sponsored projects to define and delineate the RSTs' role (e.g., Mitchell 1976; Ballard-Campbell and Semmel 1982). Nonetheless, there remain no clear-cut policy guidelines to establish a reasonable caseload of students, much less a reasonable workload given the dynamic responsibilities required of the resource specialist teacher. Direct instruction of students continues to consume the largest percentage of the RSTs' time, thus reducing time and energy for consultation and coordination with regular classroom teachers and other staff (Ballard-Campbell and Semmel 1982).

The functional role of the resource specialist teacher, especially consultation, is essential to the implementation of special education policy. The existing problems are most likely related to the organizational structure of special education at the school site, or district level, rather than the actual RST functional role.

METHODOLOGY

The Population: The population selected for the follow-up study included all individuals who completed RST training modules from Fall, 1984 through Spring, 1987. This total population included thirty-eight individuals. Twenty-six are currently employed as resource specialist teachers.

The Instrument: The Follow-up Survey was designed after a review of the California Education Code and its requirements for RSTs. A content expert reviewed and critiqued the draft of the instrument. The Follow-up Survey was divided into three sections. The first (I) section was to be completed by all former RST candidates regardless of current employment status. Sections II and III were only to be completed by those who were currently employed as an RST or whose job required RST functions regardless of job title.

The Follow-up Survey focuses on the various duties required of RSTs as presented in the Education Code. Further, it includes questions related to the state-mandated cap on student caseloads for RSTs, as well as the RSTs' perspectives on the least restrictive environment for their handicapped students.

The Data Gathering Procedure: The follow-up study was implemented using a mail survey. The first survey was sent out with a cover letter, a self-addressed stamped envelope, and a response post card. The response post card was to be returned if a respondent preferred to complete the follow-up survey by telephone. Some respondents returned the post card with their survey stating that they could be called if there were further questions, however, no one specifically requested a telephone interview format.

A second letter to encourage responses was mailed to non-respondents exactly two weeks after the initial follow-up survey was mailed. At that time, two individuals called to say that they had not received the first letter and survey; they were sent a complete set of survey materials. The second letter yielded eight more responses.

Ten non-respondents of the total 38 remained six weeks after the first mailing. A third letter was sent to elicit their cooperation, along with a second copy of the survey and another stamped, self-addressed envelope. This third mailing yielded six responses. The final four non-respondents were identified in the data, based on university records, by sex and whether employed as an RST.

Analysis: Descriptive statistics used for the follow-up study included means, standard deviations, number of respondents, and percentages when appropriate. Means and standard deviations were also calculated for the rankings of RST functions. Analysis of variance was conducted using the .05 level of significance to test whether the RSTs' caseload size impacts their attitude about removal of the caseload cap. The assumption was made that a larger caseload would create a negative attitude toward removal of the caseload cap.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Summary of Evaluation Baseline Demographics: Over the past three years, a total of 77 students enrolled in the RST training program, 31 in year one, 24 in year two, and 22 in year three. In summarizing the demographic data for all three years, RSTs in northeastern California are typically white females in their mid-thirties who are credentialed for elementary education. RSTs primarily work with learning handicapped children, serving an average of twenty pupils per week. RSTs are most often required to provide direct instruction for special education students, attend IEP meetings, and conduct assessments.

Summary of Follow-up Study Findings: Twenty-six of thirty-eight former RST candidates were employed as RSTs by summer 1987. Only seven had received their clear RST certificate, but eleven more were eligible. The majority of currently employed RSTs spend their time on direct instruction, with little time available for other RST functions. The caseload size was also a critical issue, because over twenty percent of the respondents had a caseload larger than the state-mandated ceiling of twenty-eight. Other RSTs were not counting students that they assessed (up to 40 for some) as part of their regular caseload, despite the law's requirement that these students be included as part of the caseload. From the Follow-up Survey findings, it was ascertained that RSTs have little control over least restrictive environment policy. This research confirms that conditions in some schools have not changed to accommodate the implementation of federal and state special education mandates, and particularly least restrictive environment policy. Further, despite changes in the law and the RST inservice training program, many regular classroom teachers remain recalcitrant in their attitudes and behavior toward mainstreamed students with exceptional needs.

In conclusion, the results underscore the need for a closer examination of the implementation of special education policy at the local level. In northeastern California, for example, the RST cannot effectively fulfill their legislated role primarily due to excessive instructional demands. Thus, students with exceptional needs, in many cases, are not receiving an education in the least restrictive environment because the RST role often is in conflict with local education agency policies.

Follow-up Study Findings: Currently 68% (26 of 38) of the former RST candidates are employed as RSTs. The majority of these RSTs are either district or county employees. This means that their supervision, and evaluation for retention and promotion, is conducted by someone outside the school site where they work. Eighteen (82% of 22 RSTs responding) have completed all state requirements for the clear RST certificate.

In analyzing the functional role of RSTs in northeastern California, the most salient conclusion is that a large percentage of RSTs spend a majority of the school day on direct instruction of special education students. Nearly 70% of the twenty-two RSTs responding, coordinate the IEP process at their school. On the other hand, little time is set aside for the inservice training of regular classroom teachers, or for parent education workshops. Consultation is primarily an informal process, handled through brief discussions with teachers and administrators.

Beyond academic assessment, the RST has marginal responsibility for assessing children with exceptional needs. The school psychologist plays the key role in the administration of assessment tests. Overall, the RST's functional role, as currently implemented, involves direct instruction. The importance of the consultant teacher model is not reflected in the current use of the RST.

In summarizing the analysis of key policy issues, it is apparent that changes are needed in the delivery of the resource specialist program. To begin with, the removal of the caseload cap would further erode the RST's ability to deliver indirect services, such as consultation or parent education. Several of the RSTs reported having caseloads, that are de facto, larger than the state-mandated caseload cap of twenty-eight students. The RSTs' rankings of the state-mandated functions reinforce the fact that the majority of the RST's time is spent on direct instruction, and the least is spent on parent education workshops. Some parent contact, however, is maintained through conferences and the IEP process.

The analysis of the match between RST job descriptions and the state-mandated functions revealed several discrepancies. The most frequently reported by the RSTs is the lack of time to perform all the functions required, especially consultation on a regular basis. Some RSTs noted the absence of inservice training or parent education workshops in their job descriptions. Overall, a majority of RSTs feel their job descriptions only "somewhat match" the state-mandated functions.

In an effort to explore the potential impact of a mismatch between job description and RST function, RSTs were asked to comment on whether their students are receiving an education in the least restrictive environment. Only four RSTs said that their students are not receiving their education in the least restrictive environment, and their written responses blame the problem on the implementation of the least restrictive environment policy at their school. One problem noted is the use of the resource specialist program as a "pull-out" program for learning disabled, or children with emotional or severe behavior disorders. Apparently, some regular classroom teachers are not able, or willing, to integrate children with exceptional needs into the "mainstream." Seven RSTs said, that prior to the training program at CSU, Chico, their students were not receiving an education in the least restrictive environment. The response to this question by many was positive, because they felt personally responsible for the handicapped children's education in the least restrictive environment.

CONCLUSIONS

The most important question to be addressed is whether children served by these RSTs are receiving their education in the least restrictive environment. From the perspective of the fully qualified RST, the answer is yes: the resource specialist teacher is "qualified" by law to provide both direct and indirect services for handicapped children. Unfortunately, the least restrictive environment policy is controlled by the school or district.

The RST, in most cases, has no direct control over the continuum of services, and thus the least restrictive environment policy, being provided handicapped children.

The current approach to the least restrictive environment policy, in northeastern California, is simply not working. The school's organizational structure and policy implementation approaches must respond to the needs of handicapped children by using the consultation and coordination functions of the RST, and by deemphasizing direct instruction. The RST must be brought in as a partner, not as an additional teacher who handles all the "problem kids."

General Conclusions and Findings

Finding: RSTs spend the majority of their time on direct instruction, followed by assessment, then attendance at IEP meetings.

Conclusion: RSTs' job descriptions do not specify the amount of time to be spent on the various RST functions. The importance of the consultation and coordination roles is not emphasized in the RSTs' job descriptions. As found by Jenkins and Mayhall (1976), the most important element for successful integration of handicapped children into the "mainstream," within the school's organizational structure, is the relationship between the consultant teacher and the regular classroom teacher.

Finding: RSTs are primarily responsible for academic assessments of students, but school psychologists are responsible for the majority of other assessments.

Conclusion: The school psychologist's role in the implementation of the least restrictive environment policy has not been examined, but has serious implications in the process of "normalization." School psychologists manage a wider range of assessments, therefore, they may be more responsible for the "misidentification" of children as learning disabled than RSTs who are primarily responsible for academic assessment only. In many cases, the school psychologist coordinates the IEP team, and in some cases, unilaterally determines the LRE placement of handicapped students.

The school psychologist can wield more power over the least restrictive environment policy and the IEP process, because he: (1) is typically an older male; (2) is employed by the school district or county office of education, with the principal having no power of direct authority over him; (3) conducts aptitude tests which are more prestigious and have been used longer; (4) is perceived as providing technical assistance because he is not a teacher; and (5) has a degree in psychology that is more prestigious than a certificate.

Findings: Least Restrictive Environment Policy

Finding: The RST role is essential to the implementation of special education policy at the school site, and least restrictive environment (LRE) policy in particular.

Conclusion: Instructional responsibility of the RST needs to be deemphasized by local education agencies, so that more time can be spent on the consultant role to facilitate effective normalization. The least restrictive environment (LRE) policy should be implemented based on recommendations from the RST. As the highest level special educator, the RST should coordinate the IEP process. To determine LRE placements, support of the interdisciplinary IEP team is essential.

Finding: In order to facilitate normalization, and to ensure an appropriate education for handicapped children, regular classroom teachers continue to need education regarding handicapped children.

Conclusion: Some regular classroom teachers need to receive training to increase their knowledge, and to change their attitudes and behavior toward handicapped children. Until regular classroom teachers are better able to identify students who actually need resource specialist assistance, and to collaborate with the RST in their education, the need for inservice training will remain. More time for consultation will also provide the opportunity for educating regular classroom teachers.

Finding: The least restrictive environment (LRE) policy is not being uniformly implemented at the local education agency (LEA) level. In some cases, according to some RSTs, it is not being implemented according to the state and federal statutes governing education of the handicapped.

Conclusion: The RST, in some cases, is not being used any differently than were special education teachers prior to P.L. 94-142 and the California Master Plan for Special Education. The resource specialist program (RSP) is being used as a "pull-out" program by some regular classroom teachers who wish to remove "problem kids" from the mainstream. Local implementation of LRE policy requires closer examination by the State Department of Education's Special Education Division. Some LEAs' reports to the state may be "masking" reality in the field.

Finding: The consultation role of the RST is limited by the time required for direct instruction. Fourteen (67% of 21) RSTs reported that they spend from five to six hours daily on direct instruction.

Conclusion: Consultation has not been emphasized by local education agencies. Instructional responsibility of the RST needs to be de-emphasized by LEAs, so that more time can be spent on the consultant role to facilitate effective mainstreaming.

Finding: The student caseload size does have an impact on RSTs, especially those with large caseloads.

Conclusion: The removal of the caseload cap for RSTs would create a negative impact on the RSTs' workloads and their clients: students, parents, and regular classroom teachers. Currently, contact with parents is limited; inservice opportunities are virtually non-existent; and the consultation function has been relegated to "hallway" and lunch break conversations. If the caseload cap is removed, RSTs will have less time for these duties, because their caseload size and instructional time will increase.

The RST training program created a cadre of "qualified" resource specialist teachers. Unfortunately, this training did not include a component to change the knowledge and attitudes of other teachers and administrators, who play an integral role in the implementation of the least restrictive environment policy. Hopefully, these RSTs will be able to make an impact through inservice training for their colleagues. However, given the minimal number of workshops currently provided by RSTs during the school year, it is not anticipated that any major impact can be expected in the short term.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, several recommendations for future research are indicated.

Research Recommendations

Several questions remain unanswered based on this research. It is recommended that future studies be undertaken to answer the following questions:

Evaluation of RSTs: How are RSTs evaluated? By whom? What criteria are used?

Analysis of the personnel evaluation system, used by the LEAs, may shed some light on the role of the RST within the school's organizational structure. If the RST is evaluated by a supervisor, other than the building supervisor, usually a principal, then the RST may be perceived as an "outsider." In this case, the assumption would be made that a bifurcation of the regular and special education units still exist. Therefore, normalization has not yet been achieved (Mitchell 1976).

Determination of caseload size: What measures should be used to establish an appropriate caseload size?

Caseload size has been identified as a problem in this study and others (Ballard-Campbell and Semmel 1982; Jenkins and Mayhall 1979; Haight 1984), because there has been a lack of consideration of the multiple responsibilities of the RST in determination of the caseload size. The next step is to identify what is a reasonable caseload size. Variables for determination of appropriate size need to be developed and evaluated, perhaps through a pilot study. Factors affecting caseload size may vary between urban and rural areas. Criteria, such as school size, number of children identified as learning disabled, number of instructional aides available for the resource specialist program, and other factors, need to be examined as possible variables for determining the caseload size.

Impact of RST role on handicapped children: What evidence can be gathered to evaluate the RSTs' direct and indirect impact on services for handicapped children?

Moya and Gay (1982) call for more evaluation studies regarding special educators. The Miller and Sabatino (1978) study could be updated to focus on the consultant role of the resource specialist teacher, and the impact it has on mainstreaming. The study could also analyze the differences between elementary and secondary resource specialist teachers, as recommended by Ballard-Campbell and Semmel (1982).

RST functional role: Should the functional role of the RST be redefined to de-emphasize instruction, in favor of consultation and coordination?

Haight (1984) points out the problem of insufficient role definition, for the consultant teacher, especially as it relates to services to be delivered. She notes that this problem is exacerbated by the lack of time to perform duties, and an organizational structure that may burden rather rather than facilitate the consultant role. Ballard-Campbell and Semmel (1982) also identified the need for a prioritization of the RST's responsibilities, and the need to determine the appropriate combination of instruction and other responsibilities.

Policy Recommendations

The follow-up study identified a major weakness in the implementation of the least restrictive environment (LRE) policy. The local education agencies (LEAs) have control over a policy that they are not effectively trained to manage. Authority for LRE policy is in the hands of principals, or district level administrators, who make decisions based on the "needs of the many." The LRE policy, however, was developed to meet the "needs of the few." Directors of Special Education are removed from the daily activities at the school site, and therefore are less able to make informed decisions regarding least restrictive environment policy. The school psychologist, in some cases, has control over the IEP process, and thus, to some degree, the LRE placement policy. In summary, the following recommendations are made:

- The RST role should be redefined in California's Education Code to focus on consultation more than instruction.
- Increased inservice of regular classroom teachers regarding handicapped students should be required of LEAs receiving P.L. 94-142 funds.
- "Qualified" RSTs should be the IEP team coordinator at all schools in order to create a uniform implementation of the LRE placement policy.

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Challenges for Rural Teachers: Interfacing Competencies in Early Childhood Education with P.L. 99-457

INTRODUCTION

Many of the current methods of training and credentialling individuals to work with handicapped children aged three to five are inadequate. Many states do not even recognize this group as a part of the credentialling process. There appears to be general agreement among professional groups and organizations with interest in serving the needs of this population that the training provided for individuals to work in this area needs study and revision. These programs should reflect the information known about young children with special needs and their families. It should also reflect ideal program practices and effective personnel preparation.

The personnel addressed in this paper are those who will fill the roles of serving handicapped children ages three to five. Because of P.L. 99-457 the preparation of these individuals has become a national issue. The now substantial and rapidly expanding knowledge base in this area indicates that young and special cannot simply be added together to obtain the competencies needed for the personnel to function successfully. A child's development and conflicting disabling conditions interact and influence each other in a complex manner. Much of this interaction is imbedded and confounded within the context of the family. The unique knowledge needed by the personnel working in this field is defined by the nature of these interactions and the ways in which these interactions can influence a child's growth and development.

Training programs have not kept pace with the expanding knowledge bases. Few states currently require specialized certification. Training in this area is often a downward extension for the special educator or a horizontal extension for the early childhood educator. Neither of these appropriately train personnel in the specific skills necessary to deal with this young handicapped population. Some problems associated with providing training include: 1.) determining who is responsible since it is not the domain of any one professional group, 2.) revising of the curriculum to provide the extended amount of time necessary for complete training, 3.) providing quality training, 4.) considering job mobility and hiring of personnel trained under these programs, 5.) identifying which competencies are needed and 6.) selecting which tests are appropriate if testing is required for certification.

ARKANSAS' CHALLENGE

At the present time Arkansas' special education teachers are certified to work with children from kindergarten through high school on a non-cagtegorical basis. This means that these teachers are assumed to possess the knowledge and skills required to provide all of the children across the mildly handicapped spectrum an appropriate education.It is doubtful that many of the persons trained to teach high school has the differentiated knowledge and skill to serve young children. It is doubtful the early childhood educators have the knowledge and skills to serve a handicapped population. Many existing training and certification requirements do not reflect the competencies necessary to adequately fulfill the role and responsibilties of P.L. 99-457.

The State Department of Arkansas has drafted suggestions of competencies for personnel working with pre-school handicapped populations. They identified these competencies from meetings with experts in the areas of handicapped, early childhood education, and study of Public Law 99-457. They also incorporated information from certification and training papers from other states (Illinois, Virginia, and Wisconsin). The following is a rough draft of their suggested competencies:

Domain I: Multidisciplinary Approach

Major Function A: demonstrate knowledge and comprehension of professional disciplines and resources/organizations in the community that provide services for parental support and services to children ages 3-5 with handicapping conditions.

1. Demonstrate knowledge of when to refer a child to appropriate agency

a. recognize qualifications and skills of variety of professionals

b. ability to provide necessary reports on child's skills

2. Knowledge of family dynamics

a. impact of handicapped child on family structure
b. liason between agencies and families
c. referral to appropriate agencies
d. communication
e. goal setting

3. Knowledge of due process

a. coordinate time frames
b. provide information to parents and guardians
c. implement administrative procedures

4. Knowledge of community and resources

a. awareness activities
b. access community resources
c. recognize need for outside resources
d. coordination between school and other agencies

Domain II Assessment

Major function B

Demonstrates knowledge of a variety of assessment approaches including observation, interviewing, information and review and testing in a variety of environmental settings for multiple purposes

1. Utilize assessment procedures for identification

a. knowledge of typical/atypical child development in all areas
b. ability to select and use assessment instruments

c. work as an interdisciplinary team member

2. Communicate with parents, volunteers, and other professionals

a. present coherent reports
b. maintains confidentiality but present information

necessary for decision making
c. ability to solicit input from others
d. ability to confront person with relevant issues
e. listening skill without prejudices or judgmental

Domain III Programming

Major function C

Knowledge of organizing and identifying appropriate curriculum

1. Knowledge of program models and process

a. variety of models
b. specifics of curriculum
c. ability to be electic in using models
d. use other professional recommendations in daily curriculum

2. Use strategies to facilitate learning

a. lesson planning
b. assist paraprofessionals
c. coordinate strategies in learning principles behavior management, positive reinforcement, techniques, skill sequence, Piaget's developmental tasks, and task analysis
d. maintain focus of learner on learner
e. create and model activities
f. classroom management
g. knowledge of varying disabilities to increase attention

3. Writing individualized educational plans

a. construct long and short term goals
b. write objectives (behavioral)
c. utilize terminology that is understood by all
d. use assessment data for instructional activity planning that is functional and age appropriate
e. use all other professional recommendations for IEP's

4. Utilize technology

a. proficiency in selecting appropriate media
b. proficiency in using appropriate media
c. proficiency in helping others to use media

Domain IV Professional Practice

Ability to plan, develop, implement, and evaluate administrative aspects of ECE program and provide training to individuals in the program.

1. Awareness of federal, state, local laws, policies, and regulations

a. demonstrate knowledge of federal, state, and local laws
b. limit professional practice to areas of training and expertise
c. disseminate information to groups
d. use all information
e. assessment in multiple environmental settings
f. rapport with guardian
g. select assessment according to reasons for referral and with considerations of ethnic, cultural, socioeconomic and handicapping characteristics
h. knowledge of terminology
i. interviewing skills

2. Utilize assessment procedures that identify factors that affect the child

a. interviewing
b. multiple setting
c. social interactions

3. Utilize continuum measurement of progress

a. integrate data from assessment
b. integrate data from multi-sourced asessments to assess characteristics, strengths, and needs
c. coordinate intervention strategies relevant to change and progress
d. recognize need for changes in placement

GUIDELINES FROM THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) provide guidelines for the preparation of personnel to work with young children. For courses of study to meet these guidelines they must provide candidates with:

I. a broad general education, theoretical and research knowledge, and clinical experience.

II. Theoretical and research knowledge and practical skills

1. Human development through the lifespan (typical & atypical)

2. Historical, philosophical, psychological, and social foundations of early childhood education

3. Curriculum for teaching young children

a. goal setting
b. content- developmentally appropriate and integrated
c. methodology- planning, implementing, evaluating developmentally appropriate content and methodology

    1. create, select, and evaluate materials
    2. create learning environments
    3. understand a variety of curriculum models

4. Observation and recording of children's behavior for purposes of achieving goals, providing for individual needs, and appropriately guiding children

5. Preparation for working in settings that include atypical children, understanding the needs of developmentally diverse children, and recognizing conditions requiring assistance from other professionals

6. Communication and conference techniques, interpersonal and intergroup relations, techniques for working with staff as an instructional team

7. Family and community relations, including communication with parents and parent involvement

8. Awareness of value issues and existence of codes of ethics in professional life

9. Comprehension of cultural diversity and its implications

10. Legislation and public policy as it affects children, families, and programs for children

III. Field Experience

1. Field Work

a. field work includes observation of children in varying degrees of participation

b. coursework incorporates opportunities for field work in
   multiple settings, variety of cultural and socioeconomic
   backgrounds

2. Student teaching

a. major responsibility
b. use exemplary settings
c. supervised on-site by both college and public
   school personnel
d. 150 clock hours in each of two settings, two age groups
e. seminar meetings accompany student teaching to provide
   opportunity for analysis, evaluation, and discussion of
   field experiences
f. supervised experience in working with parents
g. experience in working with interdisciplinary teams of
   professionals

INTERFACE OF NAEYC COMPETENCIES WITH P.L. 99-457

The areas where there are problems interfacing Arkansas' suggested competencies and the NAEYC competencies include historical, philosophical, psychological, and social foundations of early childhood education. Another area includes the need for an awareness of value issues and the existence of codes of ethics in professional life. Also the entire area of field experience is not adequately addressed. For example it does not incorporate any of the specific teaching suggestions such as 150 clock hours, supervision of settings, and seminar opportunities. Each of the above areas should be given careful study.

REFERENCE NOTES

99th Congress. Public Law 99-457, Education of the Handicapped Act, October 8, 1986. Report 99-860, pp.1-23.

National Association for the Education of Young Children. Guidelines for Personnel Preparation, NCATE's Guide for Preparing the Institutional Report, October 17, 1986, pp. 2-5.

Arkansas State Department of Education. Early Childhood-Special Education Personnel Competencies (unpublished manuscript). November 26, 1987.

EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARDS

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25

10:20 - 11:20 AM

MAINE'S SUPPORT NETWORK FOR RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATORS

> "Our biggest problem...? It comes down to warm bodies. We simply cant't get them, and those we have we can't keep."
>
> Hancock County Special
> Education Coordinator

Recruitment and retention of qualified special education personnel is a real problem in Maine, particularly in its most isolated regions. The isolation - physically, intellectually, and emotionally - is the major reason for leaving the field.

While seemingly an impossible task, Maine's Support Network for Rural Special Educators was designed specifically to begin to deal with this very difficult problem. The Network is founded on the assumption that teachers need support as well as challenge in their jobs, that collegiality is a necessary condition for professional growth, that teachers can play a powerful role in helping one another, and that structures need to be developed to allow and encourage such continued growth. As a local director of special education commented:

> "It (the Network) can have a greater impact on the retention of teachers than anything else because it is the absolute grassroots, collegial approach. It is the single most important thing the Division of Special Education can do....."

Initiated in the fall of 1986, the objective of the Network is to diminish the high turnover of special education teachers in Maine's rural schools. Regional support groups have been formed in nine sections of the state, three peer support and problem-solving sessions have been held in each, and regional teacher academies -- based on needs identified by teachers in each region -- were conducted in the summer. Interest this second year has increased considerably with participation in the support groups doubling to tripling in most of the regions. Each regional group is led by a local coordinator who is an experienced staff developer. These people are accessible and know the region, its culture, and its people. They include a director of special education, a teacher, a superintendent, a university professor, and a staff development consultant. The regional coordinators meet three times during the year to provide support and stimulation for one another and to coordinate activities where appropriate.

After only one year the Network is clearly having an impact, as indicated by the following comments from participants, in response to the question: "What insights have you gained through your participation in the Network?"

- the commitment needed to be/stay in special education and the opportunity for creativity/innovation in special education
- we are all a very knowledgeable group of professionals; there are many people out there to help -- just seek
- that I am not alone
- I learned a variety of resources that would benefit me as a "rural" resource teacher
- the Network is working; already networking is occurring informally as a result of the sharing and activities; for example, I have met with one of the members of the Network to help her through some professional hurdles; it is encouraging to

know that when given the opportunity to share ideas and experiences, others really do want to listen and learn

- I have not been witness to such strong bonding between professionals with similar needs prior to this time; not only have I realized that there is hope but my awareness of the severe needs in my district has increased to an uncomfortable degree; hopefully, with the support of the group, awareness will be the first step to improvement

The most obvious result is a lessening of feelings of isolation. The support goes further, however, to specific sharing of resources and teaching strategies that are helping participating teachers not only feel better, but do better in their jobs. More extensive learning of skills or knowledge was initiated in the summer academies and will be further developed through follow-up support sessions during the year.

The project, though designed specifically to meet the needs of Maine's special educators, has applicability elsewhere, particularly in rural regions. The basic structure, processes, and materials used could easily be replicated.

Specific objectives of the project and activities planned for this year (1987-88) are outlined below:

Goal: to prevent or diminish the high turnover of special education teachers in Maine's rural schools

Objectives:

1. to develop a statewide support network for Maine's rural special education teachers through regional support groups
    a. to develop team building/communication skills

   - b. to gain knowledge and skill in accessing resources, especially field-based training
   - c. to gain skills in assessing needs

2. to develop peer observation and coaching skills

3. to gain knowledge and skill in:
   - a. effective teaching practices including time-on-task, classroom expectations/differential treatment of students, instructional sequence, and program quality/effects on students
   - b. behavior management
   - c. assessment of children with special needs
   - d. alternative teaching strategies

Activities: (for 1987-1988)

1. continuation of regional support groups including a minimum of 3 support meetings
2. formation of new regional groups to accommodate increased numbers (it's difficult to have a cozy support session with 103 persons!)
3. ongoing practice and application of skills and information gained during the summer teacher academies
4. a winter retreat (or mini academy) for participants in all regions to provide follow-up to the summer academies and to extend networking and collegiality statewide
5. development of regional plans to reach out to, involve and educate regular education teachers
6. formation of regional advisory groups to assume increasing leadership in the regional Network
7. regional summer teacher academies responsive to needs identified by regional support groups
8. work towards institutionalizing the Network (possibly affiliate with CEC)
9. continued support for regional coordinators including at least 3 support meetings

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PONEMAH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
IS MORE THAN A SCHOOL, IT'S A COMMUNITY !

Ponemah Elementary School is situated on the north shore over looking lower Red Lake. The presence of the lake creates an atmosphere of serenity and beauty. Bald eagles frequently soar above the school, while fishermen can be seen fishing on the lake in all seasons. This school setting enhances daily happenings in everything from science projects to sporting events.

Most of the teaching staff commutes from areas which are culturally different from Ponemah. This requires them to acquire a working know ledge of the student's culture, respect of their culture, and above all, adapt when necessary. The ability to adapt and work in conjunction with members of the community has created a uniqueness in school-community programming. A uniqueness that the school and community are proud of.

There are several times during the year when the school plans activities that bring the community people into the school. Some of these are the Halloween Parade, the traditional community Christmas Program, Winter Olympics, the school Carnival, Field Day and the Indian Day Celebration.

The Title IV program began at the Ponemah Elementary in August, 1974 when P.L. 92-318, the Indian Education Act was enacted by Congress. Many culture-specific activities have been incorporated into the school curriculum. Institutionalizing American Indian curriculum involving designing, developing, researching, testing and training local resource persons was a monumental task since there were no standards of measures available.

The Ojibwe (Chippewa) culture, heritage, history, arts and crafts, and language are now among the courses offered to students at the Ponemah Elementary. A class favorite is the "story telling time" offered during the winter by Chippewa elders as tradition dictates. It is not unusual to see both the Ojibwe (Chippewa) and English language used simutaneously. The Ojibwe language program is a Maintenance and restoration program. The writing system for the Ojibwe language was developed by local resource persons who are both fluent and academically proficient in their natural language.

The American Indian arts and crafts have successfully developed a sequence skills curriculum adaptive for each grade level. In 1974 students possessed little or no knowledge and skills about American Indian arts and crafts. However, today, the overall goal is to have every student proficient in the native crafts by sixth grade.

The traditional Chippewa customs are observed and respected. The culture and values are learned through the traditional way.

THE EVALUATION COMPONENT OF THE RED LAKE TITLE IV PROGRAM

A formal independent evaluation of the Red Lake Title IV Educational program was first undertaken during the 1979-1980 school year. The original purpose of involving independent evaluators was to meet the requirements of the funding agency. The Office of Indian Education. Over time it has become clear that, in actuality, the most valuable outcome of this involvement may well be an increased understanding of the impact of the program and a more focused approach to modifications of the program. Thus, it appears that the value of an independent evaluation extends well beyond meeting the letter of the regulatory obligations.

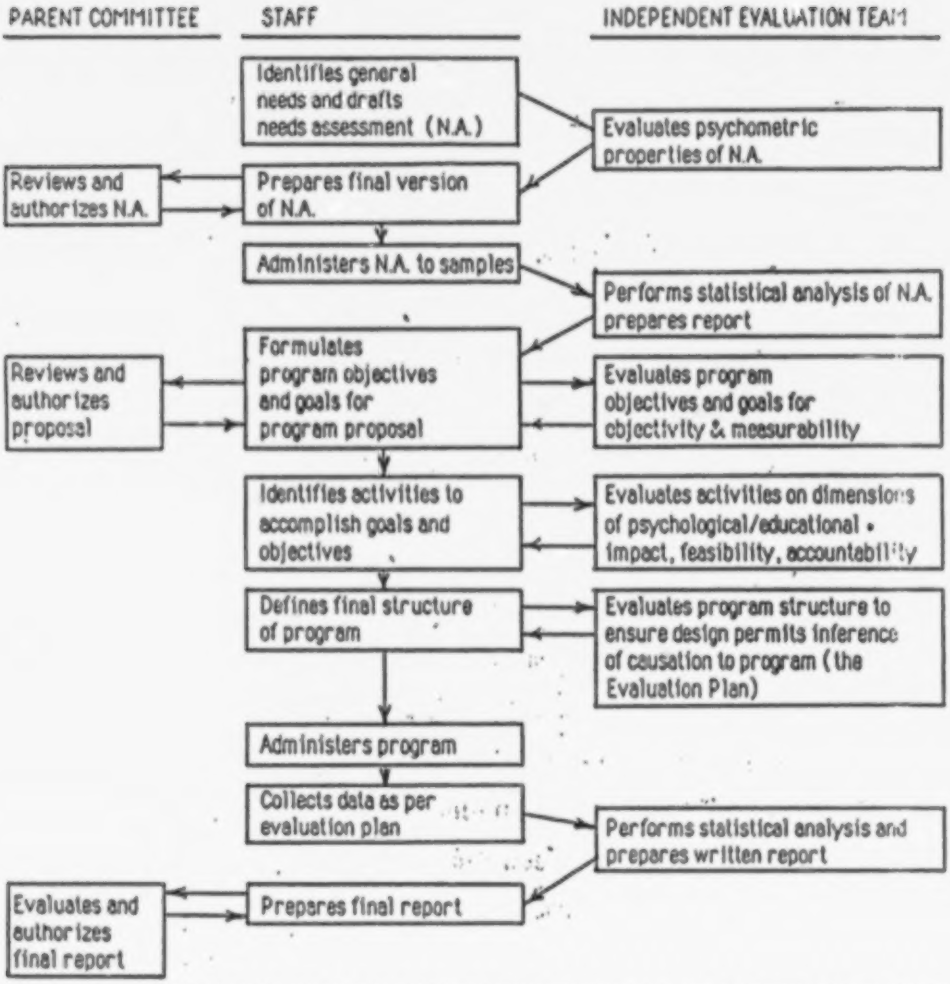
One of the initial tasks was to ensure that the focus of the program was stated in terms of measureable and attainable goals. Much effort was devoted to translating the focus of the program as conceptualized by the Parent Committee and program staff into the operational difinitions of the evaluation professional. Another task was to develop an evaluation design which would allow changes observed during the program year to be attributed to the program rather than to other variables. Accomplishing this task was made difficult because the requirements of a sound design often conflicted with the exigencies of conducting a program. The value of being able to identify the source of observed changes is twofold. First, it establishes evidence for the effectiveness of the program which may be presented to funding agencies. Second, it allows the staff to see the impact of their efforts and make modifications to the program in an informed fashion. A third major task was necessitated by the program's inclusion of a number of activities for which no standard measures were available. For example, while standard measures of Ojibwe language or arts and crafts learning were not available, the evaluators' knowledge of psychometric principles in conjunction with the staff's knowledge of the subject matter permitted the construction of valid measures. In addition, the evaluators have been involved in the annual assessment of educational needs on the reservation. This task required building an instrument which was understood by and provided quantifiable information from several different respondent groups. Further, the date from the needs assessment were analyzed and reported by the evaluators so as to facilitate the decision making process for the Parent Committee.

Certainly, the greatest impact of an independent, professional evaluation has been to convey in a forceful and impartial way the effectiveness of the program. An additional benefit has been that the staff have been able to add and subtract elements of the program as evidence accumulated from ongoing evaluations of the elements' effectiveness or ineffectiveness. The result of such "fine tuning" is a program which is constantly evolving, driven by the needs of the community, the perceptions of the staff, and the objective feedback of the evaluation.

Over time the evaluation component has evolved both in focus and in sophistication. The inital focus was primarily on evaluating educational outcomes (e.g., measuring the degree to which students acquired knowledge about Ojibwe arts and crafts). In recent years, the evaluation has considered a broader range of outcomes, including students' self esteem and parental involvment in the schools. Concern with assessment of self esteem has led to a search for a culturally relevant measure of this variable. This is an exciting area and the Title IV program has the potential to make a significant contribution to the measurement of an important psychological dimension. Another inital focus was on establishing cause and effect thourgh selected control groups. Early evaluations convincingly established that the locus of observed changes was the program. As a result, in recent years, the emphasis of the evaluation has shifted from issues of experimental design to issues of measurement that have arisen from changes in components of the program. For example, the tests used to measure Ojibwe language knowledge were recently modified to deemphasize a simple written multiple choice format and to include a more valid oral format. Oral testing has been particuarly valuable in assessing language achievement in the lower grades.

A final positive outcome to be mentioned is the increased involvement of the staff in the actual process of the evaluation. This has been made possible by the increased knowledge and sophistication which was a collateral benefit of the involvement of independent evaluators in the program. The staff now plays an integral part in evaluation decisions.

SCHEMA FOR EVALUATION PROCESS


PARENT COMMITTEE
STAFF
INDEPENDENT EVALUATION TEAM
Identifies general needs and drafts needs assessment (N.A.)
Evaluates psychometric properties of N.A.
Reviews and authorizes N.A.
Prepares final version of N.A.
Administers N.A. to samples
Performs statistical analysis of N.A. prepares report
Formulates program objectives and goals for program proposal
Reviews and authorizes proposal
Evaluates program objectives and goals for objectivity & measurability
Identifies activities to accomplish goals and objectives
Evaluates activities on dimensions of psychological/educational • impact, feasibility, accountability
Defines final structure of program
Evaluates program structure to ensure design permits inference of causation to program (the Evaluation Plan)
Administers program
Collects data as per evaluation plan
Performs statistical analysis and prepares written report
Evaluates and authorizes final report
Prepares final report

****

RED LAKE TITLE IV PROGRAM

Delores Cloud
Marilyn White
Shelda Lussier
Tina Stately
Darlene Johnson
Patricia Hardy

PONEMAH ELEMENTARY

Mr. Roger Schmidt
Mr. Sam Welkes

INDEPENDENT EVALUATION TEAM

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SOUTHWESTERN MONTANA EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVE

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BEAVERHEAD COUNTY

DILLON NO. 10
LIMA NO. 12
WISDOM NO. 16
POLARIS NO. 21
JACKSON NO. 24
REICHLE NO. 26
WISE RIVER NO. 11
BEAVERHEAD CO. H.S.
GRANT NO. 7

GRANITE COUNTY

DRUMMOND NO. 11
DRUMMOND H.S. NO. 2
GRANITE H.S. NO. 1
HALL NO. 8
PHILIPSBURG NO. 1

LEWIS AND CLARK COUNTY

LINCOLN NO. 38

MADISON COUNTY

ALDER NO. 2
SHERIDAN NO. 5
TWIN BRIDGES NO. 7

POWELL COUNTY

AVON NO. 29
ELLISTON NO. 27
GARRISON NO. 20
GOLD CREEK NO. 33
HELMVILLE NO. 15
OVANDO NO. 11
POWELL CO. H.S.

SILVER BOW COUNTY

DIVIDE NO. 4
MELROSE NO. 5

PROGRAM FOR THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

The program for seriously emotionally disturbed students in the Southwestern Montana Educational Cooperative has been in operation for the past 10 years. The program has served an average of 35 emotionally disturbed students per year in a 12,101 square mile area. This translates into a population density of 1.9 persons per square mile.

The rural schools in our cooperative may have as few as 8 students in a district or as many as a 1,000 students. Fourteen of our 27 districts have fewer than 50 students enrolled. The districts have a small staff (one-three teachers) and limited fiscal resources. In most instances, the severely emotionally disturbed students have no or limited access to Mental Health or to other appropriate agencies. The nearest residential treatment center is over 350 miles away (Billings, Montana).

The isolation and the low incidence of the handicapping condition prohibits out-of-district placement in self-contained classes for emotionally disturbed students. For this reason, the itinerant behavioral consultant travels to the rural schools. The behavioral consultant provides weekly, direct and consulting services.

The seriously emotionally disturbed students are identified through a pre-referral and evaluation process. A comprehensive evaluation is conducted by the Child Study Team. The team is comprised of the following: itinerant behavioral consultant; itinerant school psychologist; resource teacher; classroom teacher; itinerant speech-language therapist (in some cases) and the parents. A comprehensive evaluation includes: behavioral; social-emotional; psychological/intellectual; academic; physical and other appropriate areas of assessment. Assessment is both formal and informal. Behavior samplings are obtained in the school, home and community settings. The evaluation component makes extensive use of video. The video records frequencies, latencies, intensities and duration of the inappropriate behaviors. Parents are involved in the formal and informal evaluation process. Children are identified according to the Montana eligibility criteria for seriously emotionally disturbed students.

After the student is identified as seriously emotionally disturbed, the services are direct as well as indirect (consultation). The behavioral consultant becomes the primary provider of services. The consultant provides student services in the following areas: learning problems (inability to learn); intra- and inter-personal difficulties; unhappiness and depression; inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances as well as somatic complaints.

In the indirect model, the behavioral consultant provides assistance in using effective management techniques with emotionally disturbed children in the classroom. Behavioral modification management techniques are incorporated into the child's classroom management. Additional contingency reinforcement techniques are presented to classroom teachers and incorporate aspects of assertive discipline and positive action. Inservice is provided to classroom teachers about behavioral disorders and emotional disturbance. A resource manual entitled Manual for Working With Emotionally Disturbed Students in a Rural Setting has been compiled. The manual is a compilation of exercises, formats, and techniques that have been adapted for the emotionally disturbed population. The manual was compiled by the staff members and includes: pre-referral activities; criteria for identification; practical methods for effective development and a bibliography. This curriculum was distributed to teachers and administrators.

Early intervention and successful intervention makes the community aware of their responsibilities and their role with the seriously emotionally disturbed child because that child is helped in the local community. Fear of the emotionally disturbed label dissipates because people have resources within themselves to help the child without residential treatment.

The parents, school board, and school personnel become aware of their responsibility and their requirement to alter their perception of the behavior; their attitude toward the behavior and as well as alter the environment. The need to belong can be achieved in the child's home environment. There is no rejection but an acceptance of the child by the community.

The limitations and problems of our program are: convincing teachers that the child is their responsibility and that they have to work with the child; finding quality people who want to drive in icy or adverse weather conditions; finding funds to train behavioral consultants and finding funds and resources to provide continuing training to behavioral consultants.

The techniques, strategies, and methods used by the behavioral consultant are borrowed from counseling, school psychology, special education and other appropriate disciplines. The program is successful because of its eclectic nature. The child is the focus of the intervention and the plan fits the child.

Written by: Flori McCurdy, Director
Susan Osborne, Behavioral Consultant
Charlene Lindsay, Behavioral Consultant
Ron Weaver, School Psychologist
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BACKGROUND

Early intervention programs for handicapped children are relatively new for many public schools. This new dimension of public education presents numerous challenges for parents, school personnel, and other related professionals.

With the advent of early childhood programs in the 1960's, educators encountered students with needs different from those typically confronted. Suddenly, decisions had to be made regarding assessment, curriculum, funds, staff, training for the staff, and parent involvement. During this period, educators focused attention on children from poverty backgrounds in programs such as Homestart and Head Start. A knowledge base was being formulated and expanded via early childhood programs implementing various activities and scouting for approaches that might produce desired results. Although records existed of earlier programs which targeted specific groups of handicapped students (i.e., deaf and blind), public awareness and concern for early childhood educational programs for children from poverty environments did not surface on a national level until the 1960's. Such intervention programs usually materialized after special interest groups and professionals lobbied governing bodies or when ethical or philosophical issues were addressed.

Over the past fifteen years, early intervention programs for handicapped infants and preschool children have grown tremendously (Linder, 1983). This proliferation was possibly influenced by several factors. They include: (a) advances in science and medicine, (b) advances in social-psychological fields, (c) the recongized need for human services, (d) the issues of public versus private responsibility and financial accountability, (e) moral and ethical issues, and (f) legal issues (Hayden, 1978, p. 34). Combinations of these medical, philosophical, and political variables promoted services and programs. In addition, a possible spin-off of these variables was a developing interest in the prevention/remediation of handicapping conditions. Efforts ranged from medical research to discover the etiology of severely and moderately handicapping conditions to educational programs that endeavored to restrict further regression and/or assist children in catching up with their peers.

Diverse disciplines joined forces and began to share expertise to meet the challenge of preventing/remediating/restricting the progression of impairments. Interdisciplinary approaches were gradually launched to varying degrees. As public support gained momentum, funding increased and the federal government became a more active participant in serving children in early intervention programs. However, many handicapped preschoolers from birth to five years of age were, and remain, unserved.

The situation improved somewhat with the implementation of the Education for All handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142). When President Ford signed the bill into law, $7.8 billion were available to assist states in educating handicapped students (Hayden, 1978). Published estimates of unserved children differ, but the fact remains that children are going unserved. PL 94-142 marked a major milestone in efforts to provide free, appropriate, public education to handicapped children. However, full service, which includes preschoolers, should be a serious concern to educators. Unfortunately, a loophole exists that permits states not to serve children in the 3 to 5 age range, if mandatory services would be inconsistent with state law or practice.

Even with the Education of the Handicapped Amendments of 1986, PL 99-457, preschool handicapped children are not guaranteed services. Decisions must be made in the affirmative to amend state plans to include appropriate services for 3- to 5- year-old handicapped children by 1990, if funds are going to continue to flow to the individual states. Since most states are similar to South Carolina in that they receive only about 10% of its total education funding from the federal level. A monetary incentive is not present. Consequently, other diplomatic and professional strategies must be explored. The lobbying must begin at the local level with the school board and the community and extend upward to those who make decisions that affect thousands of preschool handicapped children. One district was successful in convincing its school board that the long-term benefits were worth the expense of developing and maintaining a program for its preschool handicapped children.

EARLY STUDIES

More questions were raised as a result of the early studies than were answered. The effectiveness of early intervention programs was debated and difference of opinions created controversy. Discussions focused on the effects, quality, and economics (Hayden, 1978). Further, Bronfenbrenner's (1974) summarization of early studies in "A Report On Longitudinal Evaluations of Preschool Programs" results in doubts about their effectiveness.

More recent studies supply more positive data regarding effectiveness. One such study affirming the effectiveness of early intervention was compiled by Dr. Irving Lazas at Cornell University. Findings presented encouraging data that indicated that early intervention programs for disadvantaged children were effective in reducing the number of children referred for special education and the number who repeated a grade. Data were compiled and analyzed from twelve separate programs (Lazar, Hubbel, Murray, Rosche, and Royce, 1977).

In another study, Hayden, Morris and Bailey (1977) drew conclusions via a follow-up of preschool handicapped children who had been students in programs in the Model Preschool Center for Handicapped Children at University of Washington from 1969 to 1976. Thirty-four percent were receiving an education in regular class placement.

Studies have led experts to conclude that intervention in the early years is vital in order to maximize later potential. The research supports the contention that the prime time to attack a child's mental, emotional, or physical handicap is in the early formative years (La Cross & Lee, 1970; Lillie, 1975; and Roos, 1974).

OVERVIEW OF A PROGRAM IN A RURAL SCHOOL DISTRICT

Long before Public Law 99-457, a small, rural district began providing services to its young handicapped children. The Preschool Program for handicapped children in Ninety Six Public Schools in Ninety Six, South Carolina began seven years ago to serve children in the 3-5 year old range. Services are provided through two basic formats. Children attend school for a half-day session and receive various services or they attend several itinerant sessions weekly for services in the area(s) of speech/language development, hearing impairments, vision impairments and/or orthopedic impairments. The program evolved from the premise that early intervention programs are necessary to promote educational experiences for young handicapped children and improve the quality of life for them and their families. The program serves children experiencing severe delays as well as those who are functioning in a higher range (i.e., TMH and/or EMH). The program was developed from the belief that early identification of a child's problem greatly increases the chances of remediating them or restricting their progression through educational services.

These beliefs results in goals and program components that illustrate a commitment to early intervention. Program goals emphasize systematic educational services to children and active parent involvement. Program components reflect a transactional model which views child development as a complex process. Through this model, development is accessible to bi-directional modification involving the child, his family, staff members, and support personnel working as a team to address the multi-areas of development. Program components emphasize a developmental and functional approach to facilitating child development.

The program consists of three major components: (1) providing appropriate special education and related services, (2) providing services to the family and other care providers, and (3) utilizing a transdisciplinary team approach. Services in these areas are coordinated through a school-based program which extends services into the child's home and encompasses area resources and support personnel.

In order to provide appropriate special education and related services, each child is assessed to determine his indivdiual goals and objectives. Primary emphasis is placed on his educational needs and related services required to enhance his learning opportunities. Children are taught specific developmental skills through a systematic instructional approach, and skill obtainment is via design of specific Individualized Educational Plans (IEP) and environmental alterations. Often environmental adaptations are required to mainstream the children into regular education activities (i.e., art, music, and library sessions). Mainstreaming for these children receives great emphasis since advancement to a regular kindergarten class is realistic for some. Teacher-made assessments of IEP objectives are utilized as references of progress.

Effective teaching techniques, behavior management strategies, sources for support services, and other related areas of concern are shared with parents and other care providers through workshops and/or homevisits. Coordination between the classroom, home, and all care providers to promote the child's development is stressed. A major focus is to educate parents in therapeutic and educational procedures that have proven to be effective in the classroom. Parents are taught how to actively involve their child in daily activities in an educational, meaningful manner. In addition, they are afforded opportunities to participate in parent support groups.

The final component of the model involves professionals from various areas of expertise. The diverse needs of many preschool handicapped children require input and monitoring of the child's goals. Data are often provided by members of the educational, medical, social service, and psychological professions. Sharing information with the parents and colleagues promotes a united effort to work together and address the child's needs in an interrelated, multifaceted manner.

Problems commonly encountered

Program providers often confronted problems common to rural districts when the program was in the developmental stages and subsequently in the implementation phase. The problems included: (1) very limited fiscal resources; (2) limited availability of providers of related services; (3) providing transportation, and (4) a dearth of curriculum guides and supplementary instructional materials.

Several elements characterize this program as rural as compared to a suburban program. These elements are: (1) an extremely low number of students identified in the low incidence handicapping areas; and (2) no in-district support service agencies for those who need: physical therapy, occupational therapy, services for hearing or vision impairments, counseling services, or services for orthopedic needs.

Consequently, the district enters into contracts with various support agencies from nearby larger areas. This arrangement results in the services being delivered on campus or the student being transported to the provider. Due to several factors, every effort is made to bring the services to the child. Much time can be lost when the child is transported to providers. In addition, communication channels are less likely to be effective when the provider doesn't maintain scheduled contact with the child's teacher(s). Therefore, much flexibility (i.e., scheduling) is required from both parties to provide the related services needed to implement the student's IEP.

One way to alleviate this problems is to form a multi-district arrangement and hire a physical and occupational therapist to serve several rural districts. That is a goal that is being actively pursued for the upcoming school year.

Limited local resources

Agencies directly involved include: the town's only doctor, the town's one day care center, several local businesses, and area churches. Their involvement varies from assisting with child find activities to making contributions (i.e., money, toys, instructional supplies) to the program. In addition, parents and volunteers who participate in the School Volunteer Program assist with various activities and projects.

Often the various community agencies or citizens make donations for specific projects that are organized in-house. They are either formally contacted or learn of a special project and subsequently come forward with an offer to assist. The most productive efforts have been those that were planned with input from various community agencies and/or individuals with guidance from the program personnel.

Assessment

Each student's IEP provides data for evaluative purposes. The student's individual assessment is conducted in accordance with state regulations for handicapped school age children. However, the evaluation usually includes additional instruments, inventories, interviews, and the use of developmental scales. Results are used to devleop objectives which are task-analyzed and tailored to utilize his/her strengths and address areas of concern.

In some instances educational progress might be considered "minute" (i.e., severly or profoundly handicapped). However, it must be viewed on an individual basis.

Limitations

The major limitations of the program are financial resources and transportation needs. Since the district incurs most of the expense, some might question the cost effectiveness. A substantial increase in federal dollars is a critical need. In addition, transportations difficulties could result in some children not receiving services. Due to the fact that state law does not permit transporting children of certain ages, services for some children could be jeopardized. Limited funds are available for contracting with providers. Consequently, other avenues must often be explored (i.e., carpooling, contracting to cover expense only, and/or scheduling services at parent's convenience so that they can transport).

Funding

Expenses for the program have been incurred previously by the district. Only four year-old vision impaired, hearing impaired, or five year-old handicapped children generate state funds. Federal allocations average $600.00 per child. This includes funds through the Preschool Incentive Grant and P. L. 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act. For illustrative purposes the following example is provided. Calculations are based on a five year-old who is considered school age in South Carolina and therefore guarantees funds through the South Carolina Education Finance Act.

Example of funds available

State funds:	$936.00	[base cost]
	.65	[weighting for half-
	608.40	day program]
	1.90	[weighting for additional
	$1,155.96	services-speech/language
		program]

Explanation: The South Carolina Finance Act permits counting a child in only one category to generate special funds. Therefore, the child is counted in the highest weighted category. No additional funds are available if he is multi-handicapped.

Local Funds: $1,160.00 (approximate allocation)

Explanation: The figure represents the student's share of local revenue distributed on a per pupil basis.

Federal Funds:	$300.00	(Preschool Incentive Grant)
	298.58	(Education for All Handicapped Children Act)
	$598.58	

Explanation: These two federal allocations are designated per pupil allocations. Therefore, all students generate the same amount of funds.

These three funding sources yield $2914.54 to provide services to handicapped children who generate both state and federal funds. For the children who generate only federal funds, the district receives less than $600.00 to provide appropriate educational and related services.

Estimated Expenditures:

$25,000.00	(salaries - teacher and aide plus fringe benefits for half-day program)
1,000.00	(instructional supplies)
3,000.00	(related services)
$29,000.00	

Explanation: These estimated revenues and expenditures are based on past records and projections for the current 87-88 school year. Based on current information, the District contributes approximately $20,000.00 annually to the program.

Program accomplishments

Over the past seven years, nineteen handicapped children have received services through the program. Five were served in the speech/language program only, while fourteen received or are currently receiving services in the half-day session. Five were subsequently placed in a self-contained class for trainable mentally handicapped students and three were placed in the regular education program with services provided through a resource room.

The overall quality and success of the program can be attributed to a commitment by the School Board, administrators, teachers, and parents to provide an early intervention program for young handicapped children. Teachers, aides, and parents have been quietly fulfilling their role and working cooperatively to provide the community's preschool handicapped children with a quality program.

Although the program has been presented at various local workshops, state conferences, and civic functions, its highest recognition has come from parents and primary care providers. Social validation is evident through parent and teacher comments. Student progress facilitates the transition into the school environment and the family's daily living arrangements and schedules at home. Consequently, when progress is made, parents have recognized the program and publicly promoted its contribution. In addition to these acknowledgements, the Preschool Program has the distinction of being a forerunner in providing services to young handicapped children in a public school setting in South Carolina.

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Cathi Pierce
Virginia Beebe
Southlake Special Services
St. Maries, Idaho

SOUTHLAKE SPECIAL SERVICES
TRANSITION PROGRAM FOR HANDICAPPED YOUTH
COMPREHENSIVE SUMMARY

Southlake Special Services is a cooperative located in St. Maries, Idaho, and formed in 1975 by five rural school districts. The cooperative represents a special services delivery network that for 12 years has served a geographical area larger and more topographically diverse than that of any other special services cooperative in Idaho. Southlake Special Services' delivery network covers over 3,040 square miles through the panhandle of Idaho, reaching from the Montana boarder on the East, to the Washington boarder on the West.

In January of 1985, Southlake Special Services conducted a survey of handicapped students who attended St. Maries High School between 1980 and 1984. The results indicated that 53 percent of the students were unemployed. It was not determined how many were underemployed, but the additional number is significant to consider. Steps have been and are being initiated to positively change these statistics. Between 1985 and 1987, handicapped youth in the multi-district were provided work experience and community-based instruction. During the 1986-87 school year, all secondary handicapped students participated in employability skills training and were provided transition support services. In November of 1987, a survey was again conducted of the handicapped students who had graduated from high school in the multi-district cooperative and had received transition services. One-hundred percent of the students were either gainfully employed or were attending a vocational/trade school.

It is the goal of Southlake Special Services to provide optimal, individualized "Transition Services" to all handicapped students. Formal transition plans are implemented as early as kindergarten for some students depending on severity of handicapping conditions. All handicapped students 14 - 21 years of age have individualized transition plans and receive resources from the following transition services:

*Youth Competency/Employability Skills Program - competency based curriculum developed by staff to prepare handicapped youth to enter the workplace with the basic skills and attitudes necessary to obtain and keep a job. Classroom emphasis is on 1) applications; 2) interviewing; 3) punctuality and dependability; 4) grooming; 5) responsibility and follow-through; and 6) interaction with others.

*Youth Employment Services - individually designed to give handicapped students an opportunity to gain work experience that will enable them to secure and maintain employment after high school. Southlake Special Services' youth employment services is an integral part of the total transition program as well as special education program. Handicapped students in rural areas face high unemployment rates, lack of job selections, distant vocational training facilities, and a lack of local service providers. An itinerant community work supervisor, as well as a job coach, have been trained and employed to support special education teachers in the various rural sites as they coordinate transition efforts. The community work supervisor provides career counseling, job placement assistance, and follow-up to assure optimal success. The job coach provides community-based instruction to help students acquire skills necessary to become independent at the job site.

Gainful employment has been found in rural areas where businesses are few and unemployment is high. Students have been placed working in a variety of settings, including businesses, schools, farms, and with private individuals - maintaining houses, yards, agriculture and tree farms. Transportation issues present some problems in rural areas, but generally have been resolved through cooperative efforts.

*Transition Support Services - provide parents and students with assistance in transition planning. The rural parent generally has less informational contact regarding options available for their handicapped child than do parents in other settings. Inservice training has been developed and implemented for school staff and parents to acquaint them with current resources and services available to handicapped youth. The rural special education teachers work with parents and students to develop individualized plans for transition. Service agencies such as Vocational Rehabilitation and Mental Health are invited and encouraged to participate as appropriate. Southlake Special Services' Transition Manual was developed and provides information about federal, state, local, and private resources available to students and their parents to assist them in transitioning from school to productive adult life.

Local businesses have become an essential part of the transition program. Businessmen are increasingly participating on transition teams and provide a place for community-based instruction. Forums have been initiated with Health and Welfare, Vocational Rehabilitation, and the Private Industry Council to discuss transition related issues and to promote the program.

Adapted curricula developed and implemented at ninth through twelfth grade in math, English, and government emphasizes life skills and has made curriculum more relevant to individual student needs.

Southlake Special Services' transition programs are based on performance goals and objectives. Individualized transition plans are developed for each handicapped student served. School personnel, parents, and other community members work hard to maintain a strong emphasis on transition that ensures handicapped youth will be prepared for productive employment and adult life.

Sandy Gladden
Likis Bowden
Shirley Cliff
Regional Center Coop IX
Ruidoso, New Mexico

REGION IX
COOPERATIVE CENTER
SANDY GLADDEN
Director

RURAL CHILD FIND SERVICES -- A COOPERATIVE ENDEAVOR

The goal of the New Mexico RCC IX Child Find program, is primarily to locate, identify and refer for evaluation children between the ages of birth through 5 years who are suspected of having developmental disabilities. The project is further charged:

1. To follow through and locate appropriate infant/family or public school programs for children ages birth through two and three through five, respectively.
2. To facilitate and coordinate the evaluation process with NM's Health and Environmental Department/Preschool Infant Evaluation program or public school programs dependent on the age of the child.
3. To conduct the staffing meeting (Educational Appraisal and Review Committee) to develop the child's IEP/Total Service Plan.
4. To coordinate the transition of the child from home into service programs and to assist rural local education agencies (LEA's) with follow-up support.

The specific activities of our project which we feel are most effective in locating children suspected of having developmental disabilities, are the annual Child Find Screening Clinics.

These clinics are made into occasions for celebration. The local elementary schools are turned into screening clinics filled with balloons, door prizes, refreshments, volunteers and professionals. The clinics become a festive encounter with the public schools and all families with preschool-age children are invited to attend. Screening stations are each manned by trained personnel. If a recheck is needed, a professional is present on site to conduct the screening recheck. If further follow-up is recommended, a professional team makes contact with the family in the home. From these three levels of screening are identified those children suspected of developmental disabilities who are referred to the appropriate agency for a free diagnostic evaluation.

The resultant benefactors are Head Start, kindergarten, special education preschool programs, community infant/family service providers, and most of all the families and children.

REGION IX COOPERATIVE CENTER • Education of the Handicapped Act • P.O. DRAWER F • RUIDOSO, NM 88345 • (505) 258-3650

Participating School Districts: CAPITAN • CARRIZOZO • CLOUDCROFT • HONDO VALLEY • RUIDOSO • TULAROSA

The Region IX Cooperative Center employs one individual who is primarily responsible for coordinating the annual screening clinics in six rural districts. The Child Find Coordinator oversees the training of volunteers, the acquisition of volunteer community professionals (e.g. physicians), the acquisition of volunteer sites, materials, equipment, food services, babysitters for child care, and the involvement of local businesses in the provisions of publicity and door prizes. Several agencies are also involved, and serve as screenors and organizers. No compensation is requested from any of the agencies, businesses, or parents.

The children are screened in a variety of different categories. These include: Motor, Speech/Language, Classroom Readiness, Vision, Hearing, Dental, Nutrition, Developmental, and Height/Weight.

The program can easily be done in one day. A one day program is more efficient in that it allows the use of volunteers and community professionals. These people could not contribute if screening were spread out over a few months.

The day of the screening, parents are given a copy of the screening with results. If a parent wishes to speak with school administrators, or an individual therapist one is on hand to answer any questions or concerns they may have. If a parent requests a recheck, that can also be arranged. If appropriate, the parents are provided with suggestions for a home program. If a child is thought to have a significant problem, we would then refer the family/child to an appropriate community professional (pediatrician), or schedule the child for an appointment with Child Find. At this time the child would begin the process for referral as outlined in state regulations criteria for eligibility for special preschool programs through the public school.

In summary, the Region IX Cooperative Center has successfully conducted Screening Clinics for four years with great response from administrators and parents. It costs very little and volunteers and community professionals work for free. The program provides a valuable service, and generates good PR for the school district. Staff morale is boosted as the day of hard work contributes to a sense of comraderie and achievement. The volunteers and community professionals feel involved with the school, and parents feel grateful to the school for providing the service.

Diane McCutchen
Floyd Ellingson
Arlington, Washington

ARLINGTON COORDINATED INTERAGENCY SERVICE MODEL

This interagency collaboration model is the outcome of a three year commitment by representatives from over twenty public and private agencies who provide services to children and their families residing in the Arlington School District. The major goal of the project has been to develop a community based interagency collaborative delivery system which will provide better access and enhanced services for children from birth to six who have been identified as at-risk and/or handicapped because of developmental delays, abuse, neglect, and/or health deficiencies.

Historically, many families of this rural community-located in Snohomish County in the State of Washington-have received fragmented services, due in part, to their geographical location. Arlington, being one of the most northeastern communities in the county, has had to rely on service agencies that are located approximately thirty miles to the south in the larger city of Everett. Lack of proximity of services and the lack of parents knowing how to gain access to needed services are two major areas of concern this model has successfully addressed.

Culturally, families served by the project range from members of the Stillaguamish Tribal Settlement to the families living in the outlying and more isolated areas of Arlington. The model was designed in such a way that it had the flexibility to appropriately serve the Stillaguamish Tribal families, the isolated families, and the families living within the city limits of Arlington. All of the families are served by the Arlington School District which has an enrollment of approximately 3,000 students.

In the early stages of the project, a comprehensive community needs assessment was conducted which included staff from state and local agencies. This process yielded the following objectives:

> 1) To develop an interagency case management system to match services with the needs of identified at-risk and/or handicapped children in the birth to six year age range; (2) To develop a community awareness program for children at-risk; (3) To evaluate the completed community needs assessment and its uses for serving at-risk children and their families; and (4) To develop a process for the school district to determine their most appropriate role in service delivery to the birth to three-year old population.

In order to match services with the needs of those families determined to be at-risk, an interagency case management model was developed. This accomplished the first objective resulting from the needs assessment and reflected the determination of the members of the interagency team that case management collaboration is necessary if services are to meet the needs of the family, identify gaps in the delivery of services, identify duplication of services, and assist families in their own case management.

The Arlington Interagency Case Management Model is based on a multidisciplinary team approach. Representatives from various community agencies, including the school district, formed a "Core Group" which is charged with the responsibility of reviewing at-risk referrals. Each at-risk child/family is assigned a case manager, the most relevant professional, who then guides the Core Group in the design, implementation and evaluation of an Individual Family Service Plan designed to address the needs of the family and to define the criteria for exiting the program.

A public health nurse, who also serves as the coordinator of Crippled Children's Services for the Snohomish County Health District, functions as the intake coordinator and acts as the single portal point of entry for referral of children suspected of being at-risk/handicapped. A referral form is completed by an agency representative or health care provider presently involved with the family. This referral must have the approval of the family prior to its submission. It is then forwarded to the intake coordinator who schedules the case for review by the family and Core Group. The intake coordinator may invite professionals who are not members of the Core Group, if deemed in the interest of the family.

The Core Group membership consists of the intake coordinator, a public health nurse, a developmental disabilities case manager, a representative from a mental health services agency, an Arlington School District representative, a representative from the Division of Social and Health Services regional office, the child's physician, and others as appropriate. The group meets twice monthly to complete Individual Family Service Plans with the families who have been referred.

Parents are involved at the point of referral and are encouraged to participate in all phases of the program. Because parent involvement is felt to be essential in the success of this model, only families that give permission for the referral to be made and who are willing to participate are referred by the agencies. The parents are invited to attend the Core Group meeting. Child care is provided for the family at a local child care center for the duration of the meeting. The parents are encouraged to make a commitment to the program and to maintain a "Notebook for Parents" which is meant to contain their child's vital health and developmental information. In addition, the parent notebook contains a copy of the Individual Family Service Plan, resource material, important phone numbers, and a health record book for the child.

Benefits of the interagency collaboration project and particularly the case management system, as just described, have been encouraging based on the responses of participating families and agencies. The combined resources of agencies are now focusing on a broad range of family needs and promoting services where they can be most beneficial. Agencies appear to have a better understanding of each others role and services, and communication has improved at all levels. Participating families seem to better understand how the system works and how best to access it to obtain needed services. Over the course of the project, selected areas relating to the interagency collaborative process have been targeted. Namely, there was the need to develop the educational component at the birth to three level. The Arlington School District Administration and Board of Directors responded by implementing a home-based birth to three educational program to compliment the the three to six program already being provided by the district. Recently the interagency team member agencies made a firm recommitment of time and effort to continue the collaborative project based on their positive views of the interagency process and its benefits to children and families in the community. Also, a commitment was made to continue emphasis on a public awareness program for educating the community to the needs of at-risk and/or handicapped children and their families. Finally, the need to better track at-risk children at age 30 days through age three was given high priority by the team and has since resulted in the Arlington School District being the recipient of a Title VI-B grant to develop a computerized tracking system for this purpose.

The Arlington Interagency Project has been funded for the past year and a half primarily through Federal Title VI-B grants provided through the State Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. These funds have been used to refine the case management model and also to develop the Arlington Computerized Tracking System. Other costs and time commitments have been given in kind by the agencies involved in the project. Arlington School District has served as the lead agency throughout the entire project.

For further information, contact Floyd Ellingson, Director of Special Programs, Arlington School District or Diane McCutchen, Interagency Project Coordinator, Arlington School District No. 16, 137 South French Avenue, Arlington, Washington 98223; 206/435-5525.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25

1:00 - 2:00 PM

Lea Cagle, Susan Pagni
SECACNOC
Red Bluff, California

The development of the Community Advisory Committee (CAC) originated under the design of the California Master Plan for Special Education and since that time has functioned under legislative mandate. [Education Code Section 56190]

The CAC is a strategy to involve the community in actively participating in the development, amendment and review of each local plan for special education. The CAC brings together and supports parents and professionals, regular and special educators, representatives of different agencies and the concerned citizen. For this reason, the CAC forum enhances the potential for effective school-community partnership. The energizing benefits of community understanding of special education programs, their support of those services, and effectiveness of delivering services to special needs students can begin with each local Community Advisory Committee.

THE CONNECTION.....Special Education Community Advisory Committee Network of California (SECACNOC) was established in 1981 to ensure that accurate, timely information is available to all Community Advisory Committees throughout the state.

The primary goal of SECACNOC is to provide and promote constructive interaction between CAC's which will enhance active community participation in the special education forum.

THE COMMITTEE.....The SECACNOC Steering Committee is composed of volunteer members, fourteen CAC Chairpersons/Designees and two SELPA Administrators. Bi-annual meetings and monthly teleconferences are held to conduct committee business and to exchange information.

The committee participates in a variety of activities and projects based on identified CAC needs. The committee answers questions from individual CAC's, dessiminates information regarding effective CAC practices, and shares current information centering around education issues through the mail to network subscribers.

THE CHALLENGE.....SECACNOC seeks to link Community Advisory Committees together to better understand issues of mutual concern and to create positive and lasting changes toward community partnership in providing quality services to all special needs students.

We need your help for SECACNOC to continue supporting the 'connection' and meeting the 'challenge' set before us! Your subscription fee ($25.00) will ensure your part in the network and the future of our committee work!

For more information, write:

SECACNOC
13161 Cherry Street
Westminster, CA. 92683

Or by contacting a SECACNOC Steering Committee member listed below.

JOIN US NOW

SECACNOC STEERING COMMITTEE OFFICERS for 1987-89

Chairperson-	Diana Williams	(West Orange County)	(714) 893-6478
Vice-Chairperson-	Lea Cagle	(Tehama County)	(916) 527-6907
Secretary-	Pat Napoliello	(San Francisco Unified)	(415) 664-0167
Treasurer-	Susan Pagni	(Tri-County)	(209) 532-4429

A. Sandy Parsons
Dean McIntosh
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

THEME AREA OF PRESENTATION:
PL 99-457: HOW WILL RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION BE AFFECTED?

TITLE: ADDRESSING THE CRITICAL PERSONNEL SHORTAGE:

MODEL FOR PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN EARLY CHILDHOOD SPECIAL EDUCATION IN A RURAL STATE

PURPOSE:

There is a critical need, nation wide, for personnel prepared to work with the Early Childhood Special Education (ECSE) population. PL 99-457 will impose even greater demands in terms of services and personnel. This workshop will provide information on innovative models for delivery of both pre-service and in-service training in ECSE for rural states. This report will summarize work funded through a State Planning Incentive Grant to provide the development of pre-service and in-service training models in ECSE in a rural state in the Southeastern Region of the U.S.A.

OBJECTIVES:

After this workshop, participants will have received information the following points:

1. The provisions of PL 99-457 and the new needs for developing programs for three through five-year-old children,
2. The critical national shortage of personnel trained to work with young children with special needs,
3. An innovative model for pre-service training of teachers,
4. A innovative model for establishing an in-service network connecting providers and consumers of expertise in early childhood special education.

PRE-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IN ECSE

Rural Focus:

Highly rural states often impose unique considerations in the delivery of pre-service training of teachers in Early Childhood Special Education (ECSE). These consideration include the need to travel long distances to a campus offering coursework, the relatively few training programs in ECSE in the nation, and the increasing difficulty encountered when seeking release time or personal days from the classroom to pursue training.

Practical Implications:

This workshop will provide information on an innovative model for delivery of teacher training in ECSE. The use of closed circuit TV video lectures provides availability of coursework to an entire state through the use of modern telecommunications technology. Students are able to view lectures at a site near their home. Practical sessions and workshops are held on the major university campus throughout the semester. Practicum experiences are held in the summer at various training sites throughout the state. This model has been very successful in providing pre-service training to professionals in a highly rural, sparsely populated state in the Southeastern Region of the U.S.A.

This workshop will provide the opportunity to learn about the development and delivery of this training model. Participants will have the opportunity to discuss the relevance of this model to their own state, and to give input about any necessary modifications/improvements of the model.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION IN ECSE

Rural Focus:

An obvious need in any rural state is the utilization of the resources that are presently available rather than looking outside the state for expertise. This workshop will provide a model for determining the available expertise within any geographical area and the development of a data base that can provide this information to both consumers and providers in ECSE.

Practical Implications:

The development of this network establishes a basis for exchange of expertise materials, and curricula that are presently available in the state. This will provide a basis for cooperative efforts in providing in-service training opportunities in ECSE.

This model has been developed through a grant activity funded through a State Planning Incentive Grant. The survey developed includes four areas including: 1) determination of specific individuals across the state with demonstrated competence and expertise in ECSE, 2) identification of models programs for delivery of direct service to children in ECSE, 3) compilation of information about available in-service modules and/or materials, and 4) identification of stated needs in the state for the types of information collected in numbers 1 through 3 above.

Richard L. Swanby, Ph.D.
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Educational Influences on Severely Handicapped Students in Rural Schools

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to compare available placements, related services and teacher qualifications for severely handicapped students in rural and urban areas. More specifically, this study investigated the relationships of two predictor variables-percentage of urban population and median family income-on the identified dependent variables. The variables investigated were: placements for severely handicapped students, proportion of related services given to severely handicapped students, number of teachers serving severely handicapped students, degrees held, and certification of special education teachers serving severely handicapped students. The data for this study were collected by a questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed throughout the United States by a telecommunication system for special education, SpecialNet and by direct mail.

One hundred and ninety school districts from 46 of the 50 states comprised the sample. As the school district names were recorded, demographic data from the National Bureau of Census were developed. District identification numbers were used to record information about each district. The information selected from the demographic data set were regions, divisions and states of school districts , urban, rural and total populations of school districts, and median family income of school districts for 1979. The questionnaire responses were used to develop the dependent variables. These variables were clustered into three topic areas: placements, related services and teacher qualifications.

Introduction

The education of severely handicapped students in both rural and urban areas has changed dramatically since the advent of P.L. 94-142 in 1975. Sontag, Burke, and York (1973) defined severely handicapped students as those who are not toilet trained, exhibit severe behavioral problems, are nonverbal, and grossly delayed in self-help, social, and motor skill development. Wehman (1979) identified severely handicapped students as the population excluded from public schools before the enactment of P.L. 94-142. These students, often rejected by the public schools, lacked the basic mobility, self-care, and communication skills needed to be included in the traditional school setting.

With the enactment of P.L. 94-142, numerous studies focused upon instructional processes for severely handicapped students. This led to the development of instructional technologies, curricula, and teaching strategies for the severely handicapped. However, Gold (1973), Prehem (1976), and Weatherley and Lipsky (1977) pointed out that little had been done to put the research findings pertaining to the education of severely handicapped students into teaching practice.

Brown, Nietupki, and Hamre-Nietupksi (1976) stated that in the past most severely handicapped students were educated within large residential facilities, self-contained schools, private facilities or the home. They added that placements of severely handicapped students have remained in self-contained schools or self-contained classrooms, removed from non-handicapped peers within public schools. They recommended that severely handicapped students be integrated more fully into the regular public school classrooms. However, placements, related services, and teacher qualifications were not described in this study. In addition, this study did not differentiate between rural and urban settings.

Sher (1978) and Helge (1984a) stated that the majority of unserved and underserved handicapped children were located in rural America before the enactment of P.L. 94-142. Most severely handicapped students were sent to in-state residential institutions or out-of-state placements. Very few rural school districts attempted to serve low-incidence severely handicapped students in their respective districts. Since the enactment of P.L. 94-142, many states with rural populations have made a conscientious effort to offer free and appropriate educational services to all handicapped students in the least restrictive environment. This statement was documented by Helge's 1980 national survey on rural special education. It stated that from 1975 to 1980 there was a 47% percent increase in services for severely handicapped students in their respective school districts. The survey also indicated that, by 1980, most rural school districts were trying to serve the severely handicapped in their own districts (Helge, 1984b), despite the fact that individuals within this group are the most difficult population to serve.

Sontag, Burke, and York (1973), Stainback and Maurer (1976), and Sontag, Certo, and Button (1979) stated that there was a direct correlation between severely handicapped students' degree of disability and the extent of training needed by teachers to serve them adequately. Their research has suggested that the more severe the handicapping condition, the greater the competencies needed by the classroom teacher. Studies, including those by Burke and Cohen (1977) and Fredericks et al. (1977), were conducted to determine the competencies needed by special education teachers to properly instruct severely handicapped students. These studies did not differentiate between the needs of rural and nonrural special education teachers and thus assumed that the findings were applicable to both groups.

Under the requirements of P.L. 94-142, placements must be identified. Turnbull and Turnbull (1978) described the requirements for placement in the least restrictive alternative by stating that handicapped children should be educated with nonhandicapped students whenever possible. Turnbull and Turnbull (1978) also stated that the decision for placement was the responsibility of the Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) committee.

Studies by Blatt, Bogdan, Biklen, and Taylor (1976) stated that placement for severely handicapped individuals must have a continuum design to ensure that all individuals receive the most appropriate placement. Blatt et al. (1976) suggested that, instead of special schools for severely handicapped students, there should be a range of educational programs to ensure movement between placements. Beck (1976) described in detail numerous ancillary services that were needed for severely handicapped students. However, the only reference Beck (1976) made to placement was that it should be community based. A review of the literature pointed out that little research has been done on placements, related services, or teacher qualifications as related to educational settings for severely handicapped students.

The National Rural Research Project (NRP) was founded in 1976 to support research in rural education. Helge (1984a), Marrs (1984), and Helge (1984b), as members of the National Rural Research Project, brought to light the need for continued study in the area of rural special education. The above research has reinforced the fact that rural educational practices and teaching duties for special education are frequently vague and not clearly established. Newly demanded services were being delivered to severely handicapped students in rural areas without clearly defined educational strategies. Services were delivered to severely handicapped students in rural areas, without consideration of the educational, physical, environmental and psychological structures of rural settings. Population differences, distances and travel between schools as well as community structures were not taken into account when considering services for severely handicapped students. These services were often based upon urban populations and educational settings.

More recent surveys have questioned if rural special education teachers for severely handicapped students were qualified. Helge (1981) stated that "the greatest obstacle to full and appropriate services for handicapped rural students were difficulties in recruiting and retaining qualified staff" (p. 515). Helge (1984a), in an extension of her later studies reported that the major concern of eighty percent of the special education administrators was the recruitment and retention of qualified staff. The survey included two hundred special education administrators representing the fifty states. Studies by Helge (1984b), Smith-Davis, Burke and Noel (1984), Marrs (1984), and Kirmer et al. (1984) also identified the recruitment and retention of qualified staff members as a major concern of special education administrators.

Marrs (1984) further stated that rural special education teachers were not qualified because preservice and inservice training did not consider their needs. Studies by Marrs (1984) and Kirmer et al. (1984) asserted that difficulties in recruiting and retaining qualified rural special education teachers stemmed from the lack of appropriate preservice and inservice training programs available for these teachers.

Another factor that has greatly affected rural special education is the concept of continuum of services from which the delivery of services model is derived. As a result of this concept, severely handicapped students who previously were not placed within their school districts are now placed in classrooms within or near their respective district.

According to Helge (1984b), nothing has had a greater impact on American rural school systems than the presence of severely handicapped students. Helge's 1980 study, which surveyed 75 school districts, showed that the second greatest concern of special education administrators in rural school districts was the increase of severely handicapped students needing services within their respective districts. Only money for programs was considered to be a greater concern. The compilation of studies by Helge from 1980 to 1984 suggested that traditional strategies for the delivery of services for severely handicapped students did not exist in rural school systems. A continuum of services was not available due to the low incidence of severely handicapped students. Since traditional service models were largely developed for urban areas and were based on a continuum of services, these models appeared inadequate for rural settings.

Methodology and Procedures

The Sample

The study's sample was composed of 190 school districts throughout the United States. It was drawn from the 1976 school district census directory, the 1984 SpecialNet directory and the ACRES membership directory. Random selection of ten school districts from each state, plus 12 letters of assistance to members of the ACRES membership, constituted the 512 questionnaires sent. Each questionnaire was addressed to the special education administrator within each school district except for the letters of assistance. These letters were addressed to members of ACRES from states where no responses had been received four weeks following the initial mailout. These letters asked ACRES members to contact school districts in their respective states, so that questionnaire responses would represent all fifty states plus the District of Columbia.

The following information was recorded about the sample: the number of school districts that responded from each state, the total population residing within each school district, the urban population residing within each school district, and the rural population residing within each school district. Each district's rural and urban populations were determined by demographic information obtained from the United States Bureau of Census.

Rural school district was defined as any area where the number of inhabitants is fewer than 150 per square mile, or where sixty percent or more of the population is living in communities of no larger than 5,000 inhabitants. Districts with more than 1,000 students and those within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), as determined by the United States Census Bureau, were not considered rural (United States Bureau of Census).

The sample of 190 responses represented school districts from 46 of the 50 states. The four states in which no school districts responded were Hawaii, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin. The District of Columbia was also not represented. Each state´s population and the number of school districts were not considered when collecting data for this study. State education agencies were not contacted for assistance or asked to respond to any questionnaire. The sample represented 127 rural and 63 urban school districts. They ranged in size from 634 to 3,600,885 people. The median school district population was 16,166.

The sample was identified to study the research questions. The research questions were:

Research Question One

Do placements differ for severely handicapped students in rural settings as compared to urban educational settings?

Research Question Two

Do related services differ for severely handicapped students in rural settings as compared to urban settings?

Research Question Three

Do qualifications of teachers who are serving severely handicapped students differ in rural settings as compared to urban settings?

Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed through SpecialNet, a telecommunication system for special education, and through direct mail participation. Demographic information for the sample was derived from the Bureau of Census Population and Housing Summary Tape File 3 series (S.T.F. 3). The population and housing data contained in these tapes were collected for the 1980 census.

The data for this study has been adjusted to reflect percentages of urban populations within school districts. The percentage of urban populations identifies school districts as either urban, rural or a percentage of urban. The study's dependent variables were also adjusted to reflect percentages of severely handicapped students. This was done by dividing the total number of severely handicapped students into each dependent variable. This adjustment identifies the percentage of severely handicapped students to placements, related services and teacher qualifications. A multiple regression analysis was used as the initial exploratory process to ascertain whether or not the two predictor variables-percentage of urban population and median family income-individually and/or collectively influenced any of the dependent variables. The forced entry method was used. The forced entry method entered one variable at a time in order of decreasing tolerance. The variables were then computed as a single block. Individual multiple enter subcommands were used. The multiple enter subcommands specified that all variables be entered regardless of tolerance.

The variables identified for the study were:

1. percentage of urban population
2. median family income
3. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in regular classrooms
4. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in resource classrooms
5. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in self-contained classrooms
6. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in special schools
7. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in residential schools
8. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in institutional and/or hospital placements
9. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in home instruction programs
10. proportion of severely handicapped students placed in other placements
11. proportion of teachers serving severel handicapped students
12. proportion of teachers who hold bachelor's degrees
13. proportion of teachers who hold master's degrees

14. proportion of teachers certified in the area of special education
15. proportion of speech therapists
16. proportion of physical therapists
17. proportion of occupational therapists
18. proportion of psychologists
19. proportion of specialized district personnel
20. proportion of medical personnel
21. proportion of other specialized personnel.

Variables #1 and #2 percentage of urban population and median family income, were used as this study's independent variables. Variables #3 through #21 were used as dependent variables and were derived from the questionnaire. Variables #3 through #10, listed above, were used to answer the first research question. Variables #11 and #14 were used to answer the second research question. Variables #15 through #21 were used to answer the third research question.

Due to the nature of many school district populations, combinations of rural and urban populations exist. The Census Bureau population (tab 1.1, tab 1.2 and tab 1.3) variables were calculated to establish a single variable representing the urban population percentage within each school district.

In addition to population, Helge (1984a), Marrs (1984), and Sher (1978) also identified median family income as a predictor variable for identifying school districts as rural or urban. The above studies stated that median family income was lower in rural school districts than in urban ones. According to Helge (1984a), rural farming communities often have less income per family, and thus less of a taxation base. The taxation base may influence the ability to purchase services for the educating severely handicapped students.

This study's dependent variables were also adjusted for population differences. Each dependent variable was divided by the total number of severely handicapped students within each district. By dividing the number of severely handicapped students into each dependent variable a proportion of placements, related services and teacher qualifications were established.

Results

The results of the study were analyzed by using a multiple regression analysis. The multiple regression analysis was the initial exploratory process that used to ascertain whether or not the two predictor variables-percentage of urban population and median family income-individually and/or collectively influenced any of the individual dependent variables.

The multiple regression analyses determined that the following variables were significant.

1. The proportion of rural severely handicapped students placed in resource classrooms was found to be significant. An examination of the skewness using the correlation coefficient indicated that for the predictor variable, percentage of urban population, was skewed negatively -.245.

2. The proportion of urban severely handicapped students placed in special schools was found to be significant. An examination of the skewness using the correlation coefficient indicated that for the predictor variable, percentage of urban population, was skewed positively .242.

3. The proportion of urban school districts using other specialized personnel was found to significant. An examination of the skewness using correlation coefficient indicated that the predictor variable, percentage of urban population, was skewed positively .200.

Discussion

Findings

The profiles or trends developed by the multiple regression analysis identified ways in which to explain placements, related services and teacher qualifications for severely handicapped students. All severely handicapped students were placed within a continuum of available placements. Urban school districts had greater placement opportunities available for severely handicapped students than rural school districts. Severely handicapped students in urban school districts were most often placed in self-contained classrooms and special schools. When a greater number of placements was available, adherence to the spirit of Reynolds' (1962) or Deno's (1972) continuum of services concept of placement within the least restrictive environment did not occur. The reverse appeared to occur. Although the placements options for severely handicapped students were greater in urban school districts, placement of severely handicapped students appeared more restrictive.

The limited number of placements in rural school districts often dictated placement. Helge's (1984a) statement that a continuum of services as described by Reynolds (1962) and Deno (1972) was not available to rural severely handicapped students was supported. Severely handicapped students in rural school districts were often placed in regular classroom settings, resource rooms or out of district placement.

The findings concerning related services for severely handicapped students found that most school districts used available related services. Urban school districts had greater numbers and more diverse related services available than rural school districts. The rural classroom teacher who was serving severely handicapped students appeared restricted by low support for program development and instruction and by the limited number of available related services. The rural classroom teacher's support system may include a speech therapist, psychologist and possibly, advice from a physical or occupational therapist. The urban classroom teacher's support system may include speech therapists, physical therapists, occupational therapists, medical personnel and other specially trained personnel.

Qualifications for teaching severely handicapped students, as related to degrees held and certification requirements, appear identical. Rural teachers appear to hold the same qualification as their urban counterparts. Both rural and urban teachers serving severely handicapped students were certified by their respective states. All rural and urban teachers held either a bachelor's or master's degree.

Educational Implications

Several educational implications result from this study. The findings indicate that the significant variables for placements and related services are associated with percentage of urban population, but not median family income. They do not, however, indicate that these variables have a cause-and-effect relationship. The suggestions that follow are based on the educational implications of this study that have resulted from the relationship of placements, related services and teacher qualifications to percentage of urban population.

1. Identify and design instructional programs specific to placements for severely handicapped students in both rural and urban settings. Placements are dictated by the numbers of severely handicapped students within a specific setting. Given the number of severely handicapped students and placements available, design educational programs that meet the specific needs of the severely handicapped student. Educational requirements, educational needs, and services available must be identified and developed into a plan that will support a specified placement. By identifing and devloping an educational plan by placement requirements, duplication and replication of exemplary instructional strategies can be carried out with a greater degree of success.

2. Develop inservice programs for urban school districts that encourage less restrictive placement of severely handicapped students. Given the guidelines of PL 94-142 for the least restrictive placement alternative, pursue placement options that may prove less restrictive, yet meet the severely handicapped student´s educational objectives.

3. Develop inservice programs for rural school districts that support present placements of severely handicapped students. The number of severely handicapped students within a rural school district dictates placements. If small numbers of severely handicapped students reside within rural school districts, inservice training must take into account specific placements of severely handicapped students.

4. Encourage state educational agencies to develop state plans for related services for severely handicapped students. The offering of related services must take into account the student´s specific disability. The unavailability of some related services in rural school districts must encourage state educational agencies to employ and distribute those services to all severely handicapped students within the state.

5. Encourage state educational agencies to take a more active role in the recruitment and retention of related services within rural school districts. Those rural school districts that may wish to employ related services may need recruiting assistance from state educational agencies. The individuals at the state level with contacts at colleges, universities and other state agencies may need to assist

rural districts with hiring and deployment of related services.

6. Equalize related services within a state by sponsorship of related services teams for rural school districts. Urban school districts in states with large rural populations may be encouraged to share related services by contracting or by sharing expenses. Related services teams from urban school districts, through state sponsorship, should assist rural school districts to purchase related services.

7. Encourage cooperative hiring practices of related services for rural school districts. Rural school districts may wish to pool resources for the hiring and distrubition of related services. Related services teams may be employed by cooperative agreements among rural school districts.

8. Present preservice educational strategies for educators serving severely handicapped students, including educational strategies that take actual placements into account. Given the placement of severely handicapped students within the state, encourage practicum experiences in locations that may serve rural placements. Those colleges and universities surrounded by rural school districts should encourage student experiences related to the placements that in which the student is most likely to seek employment.

9. Develop inservice programs for rural and urban special education teachers serving severely handicapped students that include the use of related services and teacher aides. The employment or contracting of related services and teacher aides requires management of time and personnel. Teachers for severely handicapped students need to establish effective strategies for the deployment of specialized staff members and teacher aides to meet their studennts' needs.

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FAS AND CHILDREN AT-RISK: A COLLABORATIVE APPROACH TO INTERVENTION

INTRODUCTION

In Stanislaus County, California, officials became acti aware of the relationship between family alcohol abuse handicaps when a five year old preschooler, the daughte a recovering alcoholic, was diagnosed as suffering from fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS). The child displayed unus facial characteristics, vision problems, attention defi fine motor delays and was extremely small for her age. other children, all prenatally exposed to alcohol, show significant delays in cognitive and language developmen fine/gross motor skills.

In response, community agencies, under the auspices of Stanislaus County Department of Education, developed th Community ACT (Agencies Cooperating Together) program. is a federally funded HCEEP early intervention project children at-risk for alcohol-related birth defects, including FAS, and their families.

Community ACT chose to approach alcohol-related birth defects as a family problem addressing both the child's parents' needs and family dynamics in homes where alcoh abused. The project began offering services in January 1985, and has developed a multiagency service delivery for children from birth to age 6.

Over 40 agencies are working collaboratively with this project. Health, education, social services, and subst abuse treatment programs are involved with referring families and children to Community ACT and working cooperatively to provide a range of services.

PRESENTATION OBJECTIVE AND ORGANIZATION

The presentation will address identification and intervention with children at-risk for developmental de due to prenatal exposure to alcohol. The presentation w include the following:

- Brief history of FAS and recent statistics

- Effects of prenatal exposure to alcohol

  Damage occurs in three areas:

  1) central nervous system - mild to severe retardation, hyperactivity, poor coordination, poor attention span

  2) growth - low birth weight, small head circumference, failure to thrive

  3) facial characteristics - small eye openings, wide set eyes, low set ears

- Why these children need early intervention

  These children are both developmentally and environmentally at-risk. Environmentally at-risk children are born into homes in which there are severe parenting problems. These problems may be due to multiple emotional stress, substance abuse, poverty/unemployment, lack of support systems. Children with alcohol-related birth defects are in double jeopardy for delays.

- Services these children and families typically need

  Services need to be aimed at the children and the family. Often, families are not able to respond to the needs of their special child until their own basic needs can be addressed. Some components might include referral and follow-up for treatment, help obtaining public assistance and housing and after these concerns are addressed, special education early intervention services for the child.

- Techniques for interagency collaboration

  Interagency collaboration is important in both child identification and service delivery. Some of the techniques which facilitate these activities include assigning a staff liaison from each of the agencies, providing agency training on identifying and working with these children and families, publishing bi-annual newsletter, membership in Community ACT Advisory Council made up of key agency staff, Community ACT staff participation with boards/ committees of other agencies, and transdisciplinary team assessment/service plan development.

- Strategies for working with families and agencies

  There are two significant problems in working with these families: establishing their trust and getting them to follow through. How staff approach the parent's guilt or denial of the effects of their substance abuse on the child's development is a sensitive issue. The presentation will address these concerns. Strategies for "getting a foot in the door" include not using an official vehicle, focus on child first, bring out toys/materials right away, accentuate the positive, maintain non-judgemental attitude. Strategies to help families follow through with what they say they will do include keeping visit times consistent from week to week, checking to be sure visits with other agencies were kept, accompanying families to meetings and appointments or providing transportation to same.

  The focus of our work with agencies has been non-duplication and coordination of services. Strategies which have proven effective include using common screening tools, common forms, sharing responsiblity for service plan, sharing information including phone/address changes, facilitating contact between families and agencies (such as accompanying or transporting families).

- Implications for the future

  With increases in substance abuse among families there are more and more of these double jeopardy children needing services. Because of their environmental and developmental risks, the children need to be identified and served from birth. Professionals will need to work hard to involve these families in services both by developing their trust and helping them follow through with their committments and by coordinating services with other agencies. These families tend to have multiple agency involvement. An interagency approach is necessary to fully meet the child's educational needs.

These areas will be covered in lecture format. Individual points will be illustrated using case history anecdotes. In addition, a 7 minute film entitled "Alcohol: A Crisis for the Unborn" will be shown. This film shows a comparison of ~~two~~ 3 year olds, one developing normally and one with fetal alcohol syndrome. The film also touches on the sensitive subject of parent's guilt in recognizing their role in their child's birth defects.

CONCLUSION

The number of children from substance abusing families has increased dramatically in recent years. While the Community ACT program was developed with FAS children in mind, we have been applying it to children with prenatal drug exposure as well and have found it to be relevent to both groups. The specific child characteristics are different but the characteristics and needs of the families are the same.

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SELF-ADVOCACY FOR STUDENTS IN TRANSITION USING PLANNING

INTRODUCTION

The Students in Transition Using Planning Project is a three year special project grant funded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services. There are two major goals for the grant: to develop a training program on self-advocacy for special education students, and to prepare others to conduct the student training program.

The student training is a 3-4 hour program aimed at increasing special education students' awareness of their rights and responsibilities as they begin the transition process. The training is designed as an introduction to transition and self-advocacy issues or as a supplement to a transition curriculum that schools may already be using. Training materials include outlines for each session, student activities such as worksheets and scripts for role-playing, and information handouts for students that explain topics of importance in planning for after high school. The outlines are designed to be used in conjunction with a set of 45 transparencies that enhance the oral presentation. The curriculum outlines are designed to be flexible so that trainers can adapt components of the curriculum to reflect their individual style and the varying needs of their students.

The student training program was developed and piloted during 1985-86 for students with learning disabilities and physical handicaps. During 1987, the program was adapted for students with mental retardation. A pilot project for students who are hearing impaired and deaf will occur during 1987-88.

The format of the training for students with learning disabilities and physical handicaps consists of three class sessions. The first session focuses on future planning and goal setting. Students are guided in projecting a personal future fantasy for one, three and five year intervals in areas such as housing, employment, recreation and finances. Information on a variety of community resources is presented to enable students to identify resources they may need for the future. Topics presented can be selected based on student interest and needs, but typically focus on training and employment resources, residential options and financial resources.

The second session provides information on disability rights, including a focus on both human and civil rights. Students are informed of specific laws that provide protections for persons with a disability. These include PL 94-142, and its relationship to IEP planning; The Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act and how it can be utilized by students for vocational planning, and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1975 as it relates to protections in education.

Self-advocacy and communication skills are emphasized in the third session. Students observe and participate in role plays that demonstrate passive, aggressive and assertive styles of communication. Self-advocacy skills are demonstrated in relation to securing services such as rehabilitation counseling, employment, or housing.

The format of the training for students with mental retardation also consists of three class sessions. The format differs, however, in that communication skills are emphasized in all three sessions. In session one, students are guided in projecting a future fantasy for one year after graduation from high school. Students identify changes they want to occur in their lives, and the people who may be able to help them make these changes. Students learn of their right to participate in IEP planning meetings in school, and of the most effective ways of communicating with teachers or others who may be helping them plan for the future. Students observe the simulations (role plays) and analyze the different communication styles.

Session two focuses on securing employment assistance. Students observe, critique and participate in role plays related to securing assistance from The Division of Rehabilitation Services.

Session three emphasizes social work services as a resource for assistance in developing independent living skills. Students learn about the kinds of services provided, and how to get help from a social worker. Again, students participate in role plays that demonstrate the three communication styles in relation to securing social work services.

In conducting the training we urge you to use as a co-trainer, a person with a disability. Our experience suggests that students with disabilities respond positively to an adult with a similar disability who can act as a role model. When evaluating our first year's activities students reported that interacting with a successful adult with a disability broadened their perspective on the options available to them. Recent high school graduates (special education) or adults active in a local independent living center or organization can play this role.

When working with students who are learning disabled we found that many of them were unaware of their disability. While they admit to having problems in school, they lack a clear understanding as to the basis for their difficulties, and that these difficulties constitute a disability. As a result, these students indicated that they did not understand how the second session on disability rights applied to them. You may need to increase the students understanding and knowledge about learning disabilities prior to the second session in order for them to understand the significance of the civil rights protecting people with learning disabilities. An addendum to the main outline is provided for your use. This section may be added to the main outline or used as a separate teaching unit.

In some instances, teachers have chosen to use the curriculum with students with emotional and behavioral disorders. While sessions one and three may be useful for these students, the disability rights information covered in session two may not be applicable in all instances. The rights information addressed is predicated on the assumption that a medical based disability exists. Since not all students who may be identified as having an emotional or behavorial disorder have a medically based disability, the "rights" information may not apply for all students.

In using these materials, please be aware that changes may occur in laws, availability of resources, program eligibility, requirements, etc. that are detailed in the resource manual.

As you are aware, PACER's Student Training Program is funded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, and as a special project we are required to evaluate all components of our program. We have provided you with evaluation forms which need to be completed and returned to us at the end of the third session. Instructions for completing trainer evaluations are included in Sections 2 and 3 of the manual. Instructions for completion of the student evaluations are in Section 6.

The Students in Transition Using Planning Project involves, in addition to the student training, a Training of Trainers component to prepare others to conduct the student sessions. Volunteers participate in a two day training that includes an overview of transition, information on adult service systems students may need to use when they leave school, and guidance and instructions for implementing the student program. For further information on Training of Trainers please contact PACER Center.

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"Like An Ordinary Brother: The Cares of Siblings"

Brothers and sisters of individuals with handicaps are a very important part of the family picture. They are often left out of the team who is making decisions about what needs the family might have in this situation. Even if they are recognized as important, they often feel that their own needs are not heard. There are some things that siblings have to say about these needs and some suggestions that can be made about effective ways to interact with them. The message is powerful and may be helpful to both professionals who are working with families where siblings are present, and to parents of these siblings.

Two years ago, a group of five bothers and sisters of individuals with handicaps came together to discuss common issues and problems. The result of this meeting is a video tape entitled "Like An Ordinary Brother: The Cares of Siblings." These brothers and sisters include a broad age range (10 to 38 years old) as do the siblings they talk about on the tape (4 to 40 years old). The handicapping conditions represented are varied as are the sex difference and birth order relationships. The focus of their concerns include the expectations that siblings have for themselves and for their sibling with a handicap, their perceptions of school experiences, strategies for them and others in interacting with their brother or sister with a handicap, and their perceptions about what they think the future holds for them and their brother or sister.

Once the awareness of the issues presented by the people in the tape are introduced, discussion will be open to these issues and additional ones identified by the audience. Some of these might include how having a sibling with a handicap influences ones friendships, self-confidence, feelings of responsibility to the sibling, family and community, and dealings with embarrassment.

Following the identification of pertinent issues, information will be presented concerning strategies that have been developed which help brothers and sisters to cope with the various situations. These will include information on the

SibShops, a group process developed at the University of Washington to bring siblings together to share their issues and develop positive skills. Other strategies to be offered may include how to facilitate communication between parents and children on the many subjects surrounding having a family member with a handicap, and how to help siblings recognize normalacy in their relationships and learn to settle their own differences, go their own directions, and feel confident and secure in who they are. Discussion will be help regarding these and other suggestions. Audience participants will be encouraged to provide information and suggestions from their own experiences.

Throughout the presentation, rural service issues will be identified and integrated into the ongoing discussion. The types of support systems available to families due to their environment are certainly a very important part of this process.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Thursday, February 25

2:05 - 3:05 PM

Developing Community Resources
To Support Rural Gifted Programs

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Presented at the 8th annual conference of the American Council for Rural Special Educators, Montery, CA, 1988.

Introduction

Every gifted program could benefit from some kinds of community support. However, not every gifted program needs to have a fifty person committee committed to the development of community resources. But some do! In this paper the following questions will be examined:

1) Does your G/T program/community need a formal community resource development team?
2) If you said yes to 1), how should it be developed?
3) How can you get other programs, within and without the school involved? (collaborators)
4) What kinds of things, funding sources, places, people, can you expect to solicit for kids, teachers and parents within the community?
5) Who should you solicit and how when you want (materials, funds, etc.)?
6) What kinds of resources should you recruit outside of the community?
7) What kinds of processes should a resource developer deal with?

The Formal Resource Development Decision

Rural school districts may be very different from each other (see Helge, 1984). Because of this different districts will make different investments in gifted resources. Districts are rural for any of the following reasons: 1) they don't have a town; 2) they have a town but the town is small; 3) they are small in numbers and not close to a large town or city; 4) they are remote from anything else (here the town may be fairly good size and still be called rural); 5) they are rural and isolated in the sense that it is hard to get to them.

Many rural teachers know everyone in their school district, what they do, their hobbies and whether or not they like kids. This teacher does not need a formal resource committee nor does (s)he need anyone to solicit resources for the classroom. However, this teacher is in the minority even in small rural schools. When the town size or the district contains more than a thousand or so people the likelihood is high that a single teacher will not know all that should be known about who has or can do what.

Formal resource development programs should be considered when the gifted teacher 1) does not know all of the people in the district who might work with or support the G/T programs; 2) does not know all of the places, events, resources, etc. which might be available to students in the gifted program; 3) does not know what other groups are collecting resources and how some of these might be made available to the gifted program' 4) does not know from whom funds might be raised for the program or 5) the various processes by which resources are recruited or acquired. This leads me to say that G/T teachers in almost all areas should consider the development of a formalized resource acquisition procedure.

Developing a Community Resource Committee

In this section the committee described is large for a rural district. The assumption here is that you may be in the county seat which might have a population of twenty or more thousand people. If your district is much smaller, then obviously the committee will be smaller and each person will handle multiple functions.

The first thing to do is to form an executive committee. That is, get people who are interested in supporting the G/T program together, ones who will work. Explain the needs as you perceive them and brainstorm other needs. You should try to have members who represent all aspects of the community including the parents of gifted children and the children themselves. Develop, on the basis of the needs, a rationale statement and a set of goals. These should be written so that you can use them for later publicity. If you are being very formal develop by laws and a charter (necessary for tax exempt status if you are not affiliated with the public schools). Set the formal, not working, meeting schedule about two years in advance so you can get all your power people (the mayor, the bank president, etc.) to come. These are the people whose names you want on your letterhead. The working part of the group will meet more often. They should develop subcommittees in the areas of: (1) publicity, (2) parent liaison, (3) school liaison, (4) fund raising, (5) people acquisition, (6) thing acquisition, (7) site location and (8) evaluation among others depending on your goals and objectives. The critical question at the outset deals with who controls the committee. Some prefer school control because they certify students, confer tax excempt status, provide insurance, and so forth. Others prefer extra-school control to develop Saturday programs, mentorships, to access correspondence courses, and so on; things which the schools might or might not approve.

It is obvious that in a very small district that most of the above would be done by the G/T teacher supported by his/her students. Involving the students in resource acquisition is very important. First the resources are for them. Secondly, many will give to a child when they wouldn't give to an adult. Thirdly, the teacher can do only so much on his/her own.

Getting Others Involved - Collaboration

One of the first things to think about is whether or not G/T education should do it on its own. There are many programs within the school each of which has needs that are not satisfied. Do you need a schoolwide resource network and if you do this will G/T be appropriately represented? Can you collaborate across campuses, e.g., elementary with secondary schools?

Are there other groups with similar needs or who address similar publics where they will or could share a combined message. For example, are other agencies collecting funds (United Way), supplies (churches), work sites (Job Training Partners Act), and so forth. Are there other support groups such as those for handicapped students (Council for Exceptional Children), for parents or teachers (PTA) who might work with you.

When you involve others you have more people to help you and therefore more access to resources (Hutton, 1980). On the other hand what you receive is to be shared among more than one group. If others are already soliciting resources it is probably best politically to join forces rather than to duplicate effort.

Kind of Resources: Within the Community

There are many ways in which a break down of resources could be categorized (McClure, Cook & Thompson, 1977). We will use things, places, people, funding resources, etc. For each of these areas a brief description will be provided and a list of possible suggestions will be shown. It should be remembered that no single community will produce all of these.

Things

Things include almost everything except people and money. Table 1 lists a variety of things which could be used to support G/T programs.

Insert Table 1 About Here

As is indicated in the Table there are resources which could be sold which are donated to the program. These can be either new or used resources. Other resources are junk to the person who has them but are valuable in the classroom. For example, a printer may routinely throw card stock, tag board and other scraps away, following a printing order;, which are large enough to be used by children.

There are many things which can be found in the print and audio-visual areas which support independent study projects or teacher controlled presentations. These can be found in the free film and the free print materials guides. There are things that can be loaned such as books and other materials from home libraries (assuming you have a list), antiques, collections, and so forth. There are facilities which can be borrowed, such as a conference room at a bank for a special meeting or a work station owned by a local laboratory at which a student can do chemistry experiments.

Places

Within any community there are many places which can be used to support the education of gifted children. Some of these places can be explored, see McLure, et al. (1977) for a detailed description. In other places you may see artifacts, processes, events, examine natural resources or have an internship or externship. Table 2 provides a list of some possible ideas.

Insert Table 2 About Here

To arrange to use a place in the community, Dettmer (1983) suggests that you first write a letter to the business. Then follow this up with an interview. Set up during the interview, the what, when & where of the facility use. This should be followed by a follow up letter and finally after the facility has been used, a nice commendation letter to the owner/manager. This is the formal process which should be followed if you don't know the owner of the facility. If the owner is well known less formal procedures could be used. However at least one letter before you arrive is helpful to ensure that you are remembered (by the person whose facility you are going to use) and another as a follow up to state how pleased you are that you could use the facility.

You should also keep a list for yourself of these places and what your (and your student's) responses to the visit was. Did you like it? What was especially informative? See McClure et al. (1977) for a record keeping format.

People

People are needed to support the gifted program in a variety of ways. People volunteer to work with children in and out of school. Others volunteer to support teachers but not to work directly with children. Your community may already have a volunteer bureau, in which case you can just plug into their network. Or you may want to help establish such a bureau. Table 3 lists a variety of roles that people may play in support of your gifted program and some sources from which they may be recruited. People are the heart of any program. You may have all of the resources in the world but if you do not have the people to implement them, then the children are unlikely to learn. Gifted children in rural settings need role models and support when working with these models. People collection is described by Saccomandi (1983), Ilsley (1981), & Harris (1985).

Insert Table 3 About Here

Funding Sources

Every program needs money for supplies, books, field trips, etc. There are as many funding sources as there are pockets in the country. Table 4 lists a number of funding sources and activities which have been used to raise money to support programs in the past. Some of these will be appropriate for your rural community. Others will not be applicable or will not be appropriate within your rural culture. For discussions of detailed fund raising procedures see Gurin (1981), Brakeley (1980), Johnson (1982), Fleishman (1983), Flanagan (1981, 1983).

Insert Table 4 About Here

Events

In almost every district or community there are events or activities in which gifted students should participate or to which gifted students should go. You should look at the tours that are available that tourists take. Most students do not take advantage of these tours. You should also maintain a calender of events of what is going to regularly happen in your community and in your area. To do this get on the mailing lists of all groups who might do things of interest for your students. All events are possible bases for studies, projects, etc. for gifted students.

You should also look at community and area events with an eye to piggy backing on them to get publicity, to raise money, and to get volunteers. For example, can you and your students run a booth at the county fair to earn money? During the book fair can the gifted students get the local book store to bring reference books or advanced text books that the students would like to have and solicit parents to buy them and donate them to the G/T program. Can you recruit a mentor for a gifted boy who wants to be an automotive engineer at the local Hot Rod club meeting? All of these things are possible and illustrative of what can be done at events.

Resourcing Outside of the Home Community

In addition to resources in the local community there are others who will provide you with valuable information, materials, money, etc. Some of these resources can be used for direct instruction, others support instruction or independent study, others deal with activities or places which are advantageous or supportive of gifted students. Table 5 lists some of these alternatives. When looking at resources outside of the community you need to be realistic. Most artistically gifted students should see the Lourve in Paris but the likelihood that they will is low. However a video tape tour may be available, see Kearney (1981), Plese (1982), & Smallwood (1986).

Insert Table 5 About Here

Processes or Activities of a Resource Committee

There are many things that a G/T resource committee or resource group could provide to benefit the education of gifted children. Only some of these are listed below. If you have a need you or your committee should try to satisfy it. On the other hand, there are many things listed here, only some of which are fully described, which would overtax a small resource group. You should plan on starting small and building up rather than trying to do too much in the beginning and overloading yourself. Some of the processes that you may wish to develop are listed and examined below.

Publicity

When you want people to give of their time and money you have to let them know what you want of them. This is done through publicity in a variety of forms. There is publicity that is primarily institutional in the sense that what you are trying to do is to keep your committee or program name in the minds of the audience. There is momentary publicity, this is like a story in the newspaper which describes something that you have been doing, or a drive you are contemplating, or a thing that you need. Then there is publicity that is specifically directed at the acquisition of a specific resource. Table 7 lists many ways by which you can get your program spotlighted. Each of the

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Insert Table 6 About Here

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methods of publicity is fairly detailed and there are a multitude of books and articles on how to do them. Some of these are listed in the bibliography, e.g., Flanagan (1981), Plese (1982), Clay & Pietz (1977), Pool (1975), McClure, et al. (1977).

Insurance

Every group needs insurance to protect its members in case of accident or malfeasance. If your group is housed in a school facility you need only to worry about insurance for transportation. If your group is not sponsored and controlled by the school you also need general liability and personal injury insurance. The latter two kinds of insurance protect you if someone is hurt on your premises or if you provide a product which is defective. This insurance should always be provided even if everyone is very good friends. Remember the next of kin may think differently. Transportation insurance is the kind that usually causes the greatest problem. If volunteers are to drive children from one location to another then they must be insured. This can be done by having blanket coverage on all drivers (say $50,000 deductible) in a catastrophic mode or releases from the parents and a requirement that you check each individual's insurance policy.

Recognition Procedures

In large communities there is always a dinner or banquet to which all volunteers, doners, big wigs, etc. should be invited. At this banquet their contributions are extolled and generally they are recognized. In small communities resources groups usually piggy back with other groups for their banquet if one is given. But whether or not a banquet is held, recognition is important if people are to volunteer a second time, Vineyard (1981), Kozol & Ulmer (1972).

Several techniques have been used successfully to reward people who have contributed time or money or things. For people in business a newspaper article in the local paper recognizes them and hopefully, gives their business a boost. Volunteers like pictures in the paper and in school year books. Plaques, for time given, make a permanent remembrance for volunteers. A large donor/volunteer plaque in the foyer of a school makes a permanent record of those who have contributed. Some schools give printed certificates.

As part of the program you should keep a scrap book for articles, photos, etc. Having one's picture in the book, time after time, is all the reward many volunteers need. This is particularly true for those who work with children and have their pictures taken with them.

Resources Hotline

Another process that will be beneficial is the development of a resources hotline. This telephone line is manned at certain hours each week. The volunteer who mans it can describe what is needed or is being sought during the year or the items for the week. (S)He can also accept unsolicited contributions. People can be told to call (use a brochure or table tent PR system) and the volunteers will answer them. The phone can either be in the school, the committee office, or in the home of a volunteer.

Volunteer Programs

There are really two kinds of volunteer programs: 1) those which provide direct services for children and 2) those which provide indirect services to children. Table 7 lists a number of programs of each kind. There are a number of sources which describe ways in which volunteer programs can be organized and maintained, for example Flanagan (1981), Kozoll & Ulmer (1972), & Taranto (1983).

Insert Table 7 About here

Summary

Most gifted programs would benefit by having a resource support committee. This committee should be designed to have the proper persons from the community on its board as well as an executive working group which is actually in charge which directs publicity, parent and school liaison, fund raising, people/place/thing acquisition and finally it would provide site location and evaluation.

The primary emphasis is on people. The people who are recruited will be the ones who do the work, gather the materials and run the show. Resources within the community are categorized as things, places, people, funding sources and events. Each of these are described as well as resources outside of the community and a variety of processes that a resource committee might use in resource acquisition. These processes include publicity, insurance acquisition, recognition procedures, resources hot lines and volunteer programs.

Table 1

Thing Resources Within the Community

For parents:
- a library of books and readings on education of the gifted and talented (kept at the local library)
- books on gifted available from people in the community

For kids (and sometimes teachers):

Consumable items which are salable
- paint (hardware store donation)
- paper (local supply store)
- office supplies (business or office supply store donation)
- chemicals (lab or pharmacy donation)
- materials for student projects/experiments

Nonconsumable materials
- furniture (remains of garage sale)
- computer (business donates outmoded model)
- books (community book drive)
- things to take apart (remains of garage sale)

Junk materials
- construction materials (builders' scraps)
- carpet scraps (carpet store remnants and samples)
- printers clippings (cut off ends from printing projects)
- pickle buckets (any fast food place)

Reference materials
- books from home libraries
- books from reference libraries
- books from local, state, federal agencies

Things that people will loan to the school/kids
- antiques
- curios
- souvenirs
- pictures
- collections
- exhibits

Facilities
- meeting room, for a convocation (local motel or restuarant)
- bank computer room (for data entry and analysis)
- a garage (to build an OM vehicle)
- a parking lot (to hold a car wash)

Audio visual materials
- video tapes (any subject)
- films (any subject) borrow from community members or from video/film libraries

Table 2

Places Within and Around the Community

- Career exploration sites
    - doctor's office
    - farm
    - store
    - bank
- Historical site
    - monument
    - museum
    - artifact collection
    - battle sites
- See a process
    - dairy - cheese production
    - cannery - tuna canning
    - electronics assembler - make a radio
    - outboard motor factory - make a motor
    - newspaper-printing
- See an event
    - tractor pull
    - community theatre
    - log rolling contest
    - rattle snake roundup
- Internship/externship site
    - with a veterinarian
    - with a lawyer
    - with a forest ranger
    - with a marine biologist
- Natural Resources (for independent study)
    - forest
    - wildlife
    - land forms
    - water

Table 3

Roles People Play and People Sources

Roles
- driver
  - -- bus: to take a large group somewhere
  - -- auto: to take a few to an event or place
  - -- hay wagon: for a fund raiser
- speakers
  - -- for convocations
  - -- gifted seminars (for teachers or parents)
  - -- for topics of interest
- mentors
- graders -- to free up regular teachers to work with gifted children
- aides
  - -- to work with individual children
  - -- to work with groups of children
  - -- to work on projects (materials/exhibits/curriculum development)
  - -- to do typing/filing, etc., to give the teacher more interaction time with kids
- tutors
  - -- to work in accelerated areas
  - -- to assist in areas missed when the children are at a pullout program
  - -- substitute teachers -- to cover classes for regular teachers so they can work with kids or go to staff development
- teachers
  - -- special course
  - -- Saturday programs
  - -- summer programs
- other volunteers

Sources
- middle aged women
- business men
- service clubs (junior league)
- clubs for the retired (AARP)
- religious groups
- yuppies
- retired people
- minority or ethnic club/group members (NAACP)
- student group from a college
- retired teachers
- unemployed workers
- PTA members
- parents
- grandparents

Table 4

Funding Sources and Activities

Sources
- local clubs
  - -- service clubs (be a project)
  - -- fraternal group organizations
  - -- ethnic group organizations
  - -- social clubs
  - -- occupational clubs
- local businesses
  - -- merchants
  - -- unions
  - -- farmers
- other local groups
  - -- religious groups
  - -- service agencies
- local individuals
- agencies
  - -- local
  - -- state
  - -- federal
- bequests/grants (for granting see, the grantsmanship center news)
  - -- foundations (Foundation Directory, 1981)
  - -- charitable trusts
  - -- wills and bequests

Activities
- membership drives (pay dues)
- bet on when a car parked on lake ice will fall through
- Las Vegas nite
- regional ad/coupon book
- pot luck supper
- bake sales
- bazaars
- white elephant sales
- garage sales/auctions/rummage sale
- raffles
- start a business
- cake walk
- fox hunt
- hayride
- dance
- box supper
- tie in sale (10% of all Sonic sales on Wednesday donated to the program)
- ribbon sales (poms poms made of ribbon embossed with school name mascot)
- sale merchandise
  - -- turkey
  - -- fertilizer
  - -- candy, etc.
- mouse roulette (mice are trained to race in a roulette wheel)

Table 5

Resources Outside of the Community

For teachers or teaching (Smallwood, 1986; Wurman, 1972)
  - films/filmstrips (free catalogs available in public library)
  - print materials (free catalogs of material available from associations and manufacturers in library)
  - books (from a variety of bookstores and discount publishers)
  - libraries (at a university or large city)
  - government agencies (through the US Printing Office)
  - radio (state and national educational radio as well as NPR)
  - microcomputer with modem
    -- instructional materials from other cities
    -- data base access
  - telephone bridge (groups of kids can interact at a distance)
  - satellite downlink (receive instructional video)
  - line of sight TV (microwave relay transmission between multiple sites)
  - videotape exchange (share resources through one-on-one exchange or through a regional cooperative)
  - state department in your state
    -- education department (educational materials)
    -- agriculture department (print and AV materials)
    -- department of transportation (print and AV materials)

Resources for children
  - bookmobile
  - summer G/T programs in the state
  - weekend G/T programs (contact colleges in your area)
  - scholarships
  - correspondence courses

Table 6

Ways to Get Publicity

- Radio
  - free public service spots
  - talk show
  - weekly swap or sale show
- Television (usually cable)
  - public service spot
  - community service cable channel
  - video tape
- Newspaper
  - feature story
  - education news
  - ads (we will take leftovers from your garage sale)
  - letters to the editor
- Billboards
  - teaser campaign (who is John Galt?--For weeks before the campaign starts)
  - donated space while waiting for a customer (the kids create the sign)
  - on the school marquee
- Newsletter
  - section in the school paper
  - a separate distributed to all kids
  - mail it to all homes in the district
  - leave at public library counter
- Presentations to groups
  - service clubs
  - Chamber of Commerce
  - Grange
  - Lions, etc.
- Static displays
  - posters
  - bumper stickers
  - flyers
  - tee shirts
  - window displays
  - bank signs
  - table tents
  - bulletin boards (in libraries, banks, churches, etc.)
- Contests
  - lottery
  - find that resource (treasure hunt)
- Get a sports team to sponsor your group
- Telephone campaign (call everyone in town)
- Direct mail
  - piggy back on a local mailing, e.g., from the Chamber of Commerce
  - utility mail outs, e.g., in REA bills, piggy back
  - back to school mailing, piggy back
- Book marks (leave them at library, should say who you are and what you want on them)
- Booth at the county fair
- Movie trailers at the local movie theatre

Regional advertiser or shopper
Story/AD in school rule book
Send a flyer home with the students
Brochure to pass out
School Newspaper article
Open house
Industrial concerns questionnaire
Business tour questionnaire

Table 7

Volunteer Programs

Direct Service Programs
- substitute teachers
- mentors
- summer program instructor
- Saturday program instructor
- small group instructor/guide
- tutor
- internship/externship mentor

Indirect service program
- drivers for private vehicles
- drivers for school buses
- paper graders
- secretarial support
- resource collector

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Local Solutions to Local Problems: Oregon's Move to Grass-Roots Control

In 1983, Oregon enacted legislation mandating a program for early intervention services for preschool-aged children with handicapping conditions. The population served under this legislation are those children, birth to five years of age, who have disabilities that could be expected to continue indefinitely and that cause a substantial delay in development.

The legislation charged the Department of Education and the Mental Health Division with the responsibility of establishing rules outlining the criteria for determining which children would be eligible for early intervention programs. These rules, along with other standards, were presented in a set of Administrative Rules developed and adopted by the Department of Education and the Mental Health Division.

The legislation established a State Coordinating Council for Early Intervention to ensure the coordination of services between the Mental Health Division and the Department of Education. The Council, consisting of four volunteer members and one representative each from the Department of Education and the Mental Health Division meet monthly.

The Department of Education and the Mental Health Division have primary responsibility for the establishment of services and funding for programs. Direct services are provided by the Department of Education's six regional programs and local providers who have subcontracts with county mental health programs. The primary responsibility of local school districts is fiscal. The resident school district of a preschool child must contribute an amount equal to the actual cost of services or one-half of the statewide average per capita cost for students in Oregon, whichever is less. The local school district is also to be involved in program planning for each child in their last year of early intervention prior to entry into the district's educational program. In addition, the district is responsible for transportation of eligible children to early intervention programs.

Early intervention services are defined as programs of treatment and habilitation designed to address a child's developmental deficits in sensory, motor, communication, self-help, cognitive and socialization. Such services may include parent training, classroom programs, consultation from needed experts and other ancillary services such as physical therapy, occupational therapy and speech/communication therapy.

Neither the legislation nor the Administrative Rules specify what type of intervention is to be implemented. They do not direct the manner in which intervention services are to be organized. These decisions are the responsibility of individuals at the local level. The legislation and implementing regulations do contain certain requirements that must be met by state agencies and local early intervention programs. These requirements pertain to levels of responsibility of state and local agencies in determining child eligibility, enrollment procedures, general program and building requirements and the content of individual program plans. Local providers must also determine staffing requirements and develop grievance procedures. A comprehensive plan must also be written describing the local procedures.

State Planning Grant

As the Department of Education, the Mental Health Division and the State Coordinating Council for Early Intervention identified county responsibilities in early intervention, it became apparent that there was a need to provide assistance to the counties as they began to establish their local advisory groups and to write their plans. Neither the Department of Education nor Mental Health Division had staff or resources to assist counties in these efforts. Thus, it was decided in the fall of 1983, that the state should apply for an Early Childhood State Planning Grant.

The Department of Education designated the Teaching Research Division of the Oregon State System of Higher Education as a responsible state agency to apply for State Planning Grant (SPG) funds. The grant was submitted by Teaching Research in September of 1983, and the state received the first State Planning Grant effective October, 1984. The SPG staff, Dr. Wm. Moore, project director and Ms. Jane Willems, associate director, together with the State Coordinating Council for Early Intervention agreed upon a procedure by which assistance could be provided to the Council in meeting its obligations prescribed in Oregon's early intervention law. It was decided that the SPG staff would have the major responsibility for assisting counties in the task of organizing advisory groups and providing technical assistance to develop their written plans.

Local Level Planning

The legislation was implemented at the local level by requiring community planning. Communities (later defined by county boundaries) were given the task of defining the services to be provided and determining how services would be delivered. The county was required to write and implement an early intervention plan which was to include at least the following eight components:

1. Evidence of the formation of a county early intervention advisory group
2. Determination of a primary provider for early intervention services in the county
3. Description of the array of services to be provided
4. Evidence of a mix and match of services and funding
5. Evidence of the opportunity for interaction of children with handicaps and children without handicaps
6. Description of interagency agreements
7. Determination of a fixed point of referral
8. List of eligible children

Statewide Needs Assessment

The SPG staff met with all county advisory teams to assist in the completion of a needs assessment. The needs assessment of early intervention services was completed by 97 percent of the counties in Oregon--35 of 36, as well as the Warm Springs Indian Reservation. Needs data were identified by the counties using materials taken from the book Early Intervention Advisory Group Workbook written by the SPG staff. Components of the needs assessment were based on requirements in the Administrative Rules as well as from other educational, medical and health materials. Results of the needs assessment indicated that all of the counties had an early intervention advisory group and that they all had identified a county-level primary provider and were all using a fixed point of referral for parents to access services. Needs data further indicated that a wide variety of service were available but in varying degrees across counties. The majority of counties in the state provide parent training and have self-contained classrooms for early intervention programs. Seventeen local plans report involvement with programs for nonhandicapped children. Many of these programs are in day care centers and Head Start classrooms. County data indicate that the majority of services provided by Department of Education regional programs are provided on an itinerant basis. The information from the needs assessment formed the basis for SPG staff's technical assistance to counties during the 1986-87 project year.

Figure 1 presents the membership of local advisory groups. The largest representation comes from the public schools while the second largest group is composed of parents. Additional membership comes from providers in county mental health programs, regional programs, health care facilities, as well as a variety of other agencies. With this spectrum of membership, a broad base of agreement for provision of services is being developed at the local level.

These local planning efforts must be recognized as one of the highlights in the implementation of Oregon's early intervention legislation. During the 1985 legislative session, 18 counties had established local planning groups. Presently 36 local planning councils have been formed, including the Warm Springs Indian Reservation. Therefore, all counties in the State have active local advisory groups.

Interagency Agreements

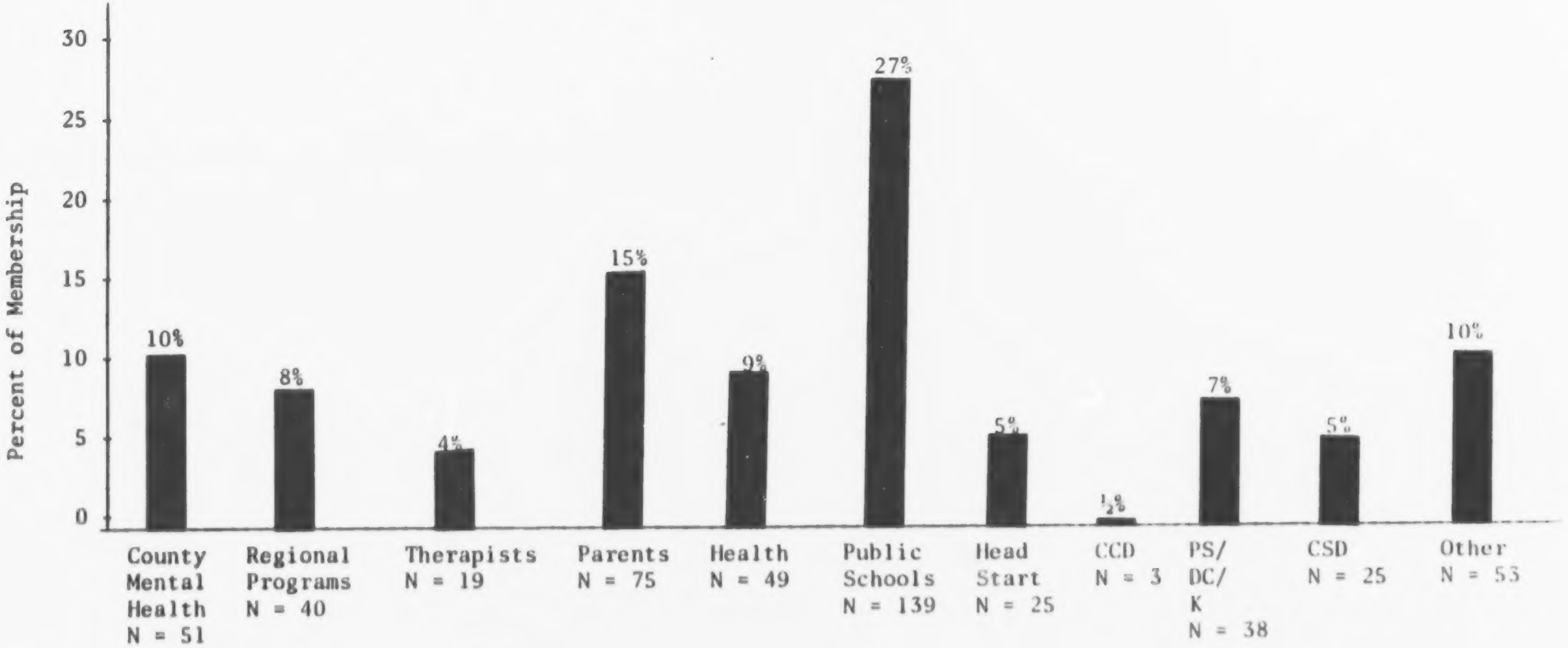
The Administrative Rules specify that agreements are needed to ensure the delivery of services at the local level. An original goal of Oregon's early intervention law was to encourage and foster agreement between providers so that parents could more easily access services for their child. Prior to this legislation, the provision of early intervention services was the domain of the Mental Health Division for some children and the Department of Education for others. There was reluctance to involve other providers even though they may have been able to more adequately meet the needs of children. Based upon the data presented from the county plans, the goal of including a wider spectrum of providers has been accomplished. A review of completed plans provides evidence of many informal written agreements, and also various formal agreements. The finest example of agreement between agencies is the actual written plan. The plan provides a clear description of what services are to be provided, how they interrelate and are evaluated for effectiveness. The signatures of the membership document the agreement.

State Level Management of Early Intervention

The management and administration of early intervention is the responsibility of the State Department of Education, the Mental Health Division, and the State Coordinating Council for Early Intervention. The Council is to ensure that the Department of Education and Mental Health Division set appropriate standards for early intervention services and measure program compliance with these standards. They are also to implement and maintain a standardized statewide program evaluation system for individual child progress.

Figure 1

Early Intervention Local Advisory Group Membership
1985-86
N = 36 Advisory Groups - 517 Individuals



Key: CCD = Crippled Children's Division
PS = Preschools
DC = Day Cares
K = Kindergartens
CSD = Children's Services Division

4

The Council has been assisted in these efforts by the SPG staff. The standards for services have been specified, and they were interpreted at the county level through their plans. These plans were reviewed by the Council and the SPG staff and feedback was provided to each county concerning the level to which they were meeting the standards. Individual child progress is being measured with the Oregon Preschool Assessment System which is in its final stages of development. A major area in which the Council and the SPG staff are working during the 1986-87 year is in the development of a system by which overall program effectiveness can be measured.

Staff Training Needs

Personnel from the regional and county early intervention programs were surveyed by the SPG staff to determine the qualifications of direct care providers. The survey indicated that staff had minimal prior experience in working with young handicapped children. Availability of inservice training for this staff was examined. Twenty-two projects were identified as providing inservice training in Oregon. The majority of their efforts were directed toward educators. The survey indicated that during the 1986-87 school year, significantly less training was to be available even though the need remained high. Oregon successfully conducted an early intervention conference for county providers and this effort will be continued in 1987. Inservice training for families with children with handicapping conditions is needed. Only two agencies in the state are addressing this problem in a systematic fashion.

In all of the efforts described above, the SPG staff has participated as an integral part of the system. This participation has included assisting the counties in the development of their plans so that they reflected the standards, helping the Coordinating Council in their efforts to review the plans, and providing technical assistance to counties who are in need of further help to comply to the Rules.

Conclusion

There are two areas deserving particular note. First, the effect of these ongoing county planning efforts is noteworthy. Coordination among agencies and personnel in Oregon has increased. In many cases agencies who previously did not know each other existed are collaborating in the delivery of early intervention srvices. This type of coordination is enhancing the extent of services available and further benefitting the children being served.

Second, the State Early Intervention Council is pressing for an expansion in services to all children with handicapping conditions. The need for this is substantiated by the fact that 63% of the county advisory groups established a goal statement addressing the needs of all handicapped children. In addition, a united effort is being formulated to present this information to the state legislators so that funding for all children with handicaps can be achieved.

The State Early Intervention Coordinating Council is assuming the lead role in bringing together providers and consumers and other interested parties in an attempt to develop a unified legislative request for funding for all preschool children with handicapping conditions. This task is ongoing at the present time.

SAP16

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MANAGING OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY IN RURAL EDUCATION
("M. O. R. E.")
INITIAL FINDINGS

The need for competent related service personnel, particularly occupational therapists, to serve in rural educational areas has been well documented. Two-thirds of all United State schools are located in rural areas, and the majority of unserved and underserved handicapped children are enrolled in these rural schools (Clark and White, 1985; Massey and Crosby, 1983). In the past, there has been some debate regarding what constitutes a rural district. Helge (1984) reports that a district is considered rural when the number of inhabitants is fewer than 150 per square mile or when located in counties with 60% or more of the population living in communities no larger than 5,000 inhabitants. Districts with more than 10,000 students and those within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, as determined by the United States Census Bureau, are not considered rural.

A major problem in rural education is recruitment and retention of qualified staff (Helge, 1984; Will, 1985; Latham and Burnham, 1985; Kirmer, Lockwood, Mickler and Sweeney, 1984; Marrs, 1984). A 40% to 50% attrition rate annually is typical (Will, 1985). A survey conducted in 1983 by the National Rural Project reported that only 17% of rural districts and special education cooperatives indicated that they had an adequate number of special education personnel. In a recent report filed by the Ad Hoc Commission on Occupational Therapy Manpower, data collected annually by the U.S. Office of Special Education Program, U.S. Department of Education, reports the needs for occupational therapists have consistently outnumbered the supply. In 1983, state special education departments indicated a need for 20.5 percent more occupational therapists than were currently employed under Part B funding of P.L. 94-142 (OT Manpower). Helge (1984) notes that itinerant positions, such as occupational therapists, are most often not filled. Preservice training which does not consider rural needs, contribute to chronic vacancies of these positions.

Recognizing the need for preservice training of occupational therapists to serve in school systems, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in 1978 funded the American Occupational Therapy Association to develop a model for training occupational therapists employed in school systems (Gilfoyle and Hays, 1979). The Special Education Department at the University of Kansas developed a special tract for occupational and physical therapists pursuing a masters degree in Special Education. Their project, funded by OSERS in 1980, developed and implemented a model to prepare therapists to serve as consultants to programs for severely handicapped students in public school settings.

In order for therapists to integrate services into rural school systems they need to have an understanding of the system, its educational aims, and its philosophy (Regan,1982). Punwar and Wendt (1980) outlined the effort to mandate occupational therapists in Wisconsin to be certified by the Department of Public Instruction for those therapists serving in public schools. Identification of competencies and relevant curriculum content were established as cornerstones of certification standards.

The need to alter and adapt types of service provision for occupational therapists is essential in rural settings. Through preservice training, the necessary understanding of the roles a consultant and knowledge of different types of service delivery can be taught. The skills of a consultant are essential to service delivery in educational setting (Dunn, 1985). Dunn (1985) notes that the demographics of school (rural vs. urban) do not change teacher or administrators preference of consultative style.

A survey of educators, therapists and administrators in the midwest area (Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, and Missouri) conducted by Dunn (1986) asked pertinent questions reflective of the need for related service of occupational therapy in rural educational settings. University bachelor's level programs in these states did not have preservice training for service in rural education although all departments expressed a need for such a curriculum. State agencies recognized the need for preservice training and reported chronic vacancies in rural settings for occupational therapists. Additionally all reported that due to lack of services, children with special needs are either unserved, underserved, or most travel to the closest urban setting for services.

Special education directors reported that of related services personnel an occupational therapist could best serve their programs' needs (Dunn, 1986). This preference was also supported by a survey completed by Guess (1980) at the University of Kansas. Teachers of severely multiply handicapped students ranked their perceptions of contributions from other professionals and disciplines in the education of students in their classroom. The results indicated that teachers perceive occupational therapists as the most needed service, followed by physical therapy and speech pathology, medicine, nursing, social work, and psychology. Additional concerns expressed by special education directors include (1) lack of preservice training for occupational therapy serving in school settings, (2) difficulty with currently employed therapists continuing to rely solely on the medical model and (3) inability of therapists to identify and implement appropriate methods and amounts of service delivery in rural education settings.

In order to address these needs, the Occupational Therapy Education Department at the University of Kansas designed a preservice training model. The project is funded by OSERS to investigate preservice training needs for service delivery to rural education settings. This paper will present preliminary data on trends of rural needs that have been identified and suggest plans for preservice training.

METHODS

POPULATIONS:

For purposes of this study occupational therapy students and pediatric occupational therapists were surveyed.

All Semester I students enrolled in the Occupational Therapy Curriculum at the University of Kansas Medical Center during the Fall 1987 semester were asked to participate in the initial data collection. This group was comprised of 61 students who were newly entering the program. These students were enrolled in a developmental life task course and a fieldwork course providing them exposure to the pediatric age group. These students completed the surveys and questionnaires in early November 1987.

Occupational therapy personnel currently practicing in pediatrics in Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, and Missouri were also sent questionnaires and surveys. Both rural and urban based personnel were included. For purposes of this study, criteria established by Helge (1984) was used to determine those personnel in serving in rural communities and those serving in urban communities. The names of the therapists were obtained through state occupational therapy associations and through the state departments of education. The forms were sent to 95 therapists.

INSTRUMENTS/MATERIALS:

Three documents were used in collected data presentad here. Occupational therapy students and pediatric occupational therapy personnel were asked to complete the Attitudes Toward School-Based Services (ATSBS) survey from Training Occupational Therapy Educational Management in Schools (Gilfoyle,1981). Respondents were asked to indicate how much she or he agreed or disagreed with 36 statements regarding school-based services on a scale for -3 ("1 disagree very much") to +3 ("1 agree very much").

The second instrument both students and occupational therapy personnel were asked to complete is the Classroom Integration Questionnaire (CIQ). This questionnaire, taken from Mainstreaming: Learners and their Environment (Kaufman, Agard, and Semmel, 1985), presents the reader with vignettes of 25 children with primarily cognitive or behavior problems. The CIQ asks respondents to indicate appropriate classroom placement for each child: a regular classroom, a regular classroom all day with supplemental materials and advice, a regular classroom part of the day with supplemental materials and advice, a special class all day, or not for public education.

Occupational therapy personnel were asked to complete a third document, Occupational Therapy Needs Survey (OTNS) developed by the MORE project staff. The survey included demographic information, questions regarding roles, preservice training needs, challenges of service provision in educational settings, inservice topics, team members, resources, and caseloads.

PROCEDURES:

The Semester I occupational therapy students were asked to complete the ATSBS and the CIQ during a one-hour home-room period in early November. Students were given an abstract outlining the project and a letter stating their participation was requested but not mandatory. Each student was given a set of forms to complete. As the forms were completed, each student indicated their number on a master list developed for longitudinal purposes.

The occupational therapy personnel received a packet in the mail containing an introductory letter, the project abstract, a consent form, the coded instruments used for data collection, and a self-addressed, stamped envelop. The packets were mailed in mid-October with a return requested in one month.

Responses from each questionnaire or survey were tabulated by frequency, and analyzed. The percent of frequency was compared for each group (occupational therapy students, rural occupational therapy personnel, urban occupational therapy personnel).

Results

Of the 61 occupational therapy students, 55 students (90%) completed the packet. Six students (10%) chose not to participate. Of the 95 occupational therapy personnel surveyed, 29 (31%) responded to the surveys and questionnaires at the end of 2 months. Of the responding occupational therapy personnel, 19 (65%) were identified as urban-based therapists and 10 (34%) were identified as rural-based personnel.

Table 1 presents the demographic information about the occupational therapy personnel. As indicated in the table, the urban and rural personnel are relatively equal in educational background, years of practice in occupational therapy, years in pediatrics, and years practicing in the public schools. Differences were noted in number of schools served, number of miles traveled each week, and in the number of children served by each therapist.

The OTNS was completed by all occupational therapy personnel returning their packets. The participants were asked to list their top five concerns in preservice training and needs in occupational therapy service delivery in educational settings.

Table 2 lists the preservice content areas listed by rural and urban occupational therapy personnel. The areas noted by both groups as most important include advanced sciences, child development, communication skills, knowledge of educational philosophy and aims, evaluation and interpretation skills, and writing individualized educational program.

The OTNS also asked respondents to list needs of occupational therapy service delivery in educational settings. Table 3 lists needs as stated by rural and urban personnel. As listed in the table, the top 3 needs for both groups are issues of service provision in terms of caseload size, time, space, and money; consultation skills; and continuing education resources. Many other areas of overlap existed, although each need had differing frequency from group to group.

The ATSBS was completed by the occupational therapy students, the rural occupational therapy personnel, and the urban occupational therapy personnel.

Although respondents had 6 categories of choices (-3, -2, -1, +1, +2, +3), responses were grouped into negative (-3, -2), neutral (-1, +1), or positive (+2, +3) categories. Responses were analyzed first by grouping items into five content areas. The results of the content area analysis are picture in Graph 1. Percentage groupings were essentially the same across all groups in each area when comparing the percent of negative, neutral, and positive responses. Three items had less than a 20% difference in response patterns across groups; 15 items showed a 20-30% difference; 7 items showed a 30-40% difference; 7 items showed a 40-50% difference; and 4 items showed a 50% or more difference. Table 4 presents the pattern of differences for the 4 items with more than 50% difference.

The CIQ has items describing children who have cognitive problems (N=11) and children who have behavior problems (N=12). Two items described children with both cognitive and behavior problems. Percent of responses to each level of classroom placement were plotted for the 25 items. Visual inspection revealed that 22 items had very similar patterns of choices across all three groups, with students and therapists most frequently choosing mainstreamed with special classroom help, resources room and special class placement. The three items that generated significantly different patterns of response were vignettes about children with cognitive difficulties which lead to poor ability to follow instructions necessitating the use of concrete directions and materials.

Discussion:

Occupational therapy personnel working in both rural and urban areas in four midwest states report similar educational backgrounds, years of practice in occupational therapy and specifically in pediatrics within the public schools. Differences appear in the number of schools and children served by each personnel and to a greater extent the number of miles traveled to provide these services. Rural personnel reported having an average of more than four times as many miles per week as urban personnel. The rural personnel also averaged 50% more schools served and 25% more children on their caseloads. These additional factors require rural based personnel to consider other service provision patterns such as monitoring and consultation as a means of addressing these needs. Children in rural areas may receive direct service less frequently than children in urban areas.

The OTNS results indicate that rural and urban occupational therapy personnel agree on the most important preservice content areas necessary for working in their particular settings. These include knowledge about the basic sciences, child development , and communication and evaluation and interpretation skills. These skills are desirable in all areas of occupational therapy practice. Additionally both groups listed knowledge of educational philosophy and aims as well as the Individual Education Planning process as necessary content. These additional areas indicate the significance the personnel place on occupational therapy personnel having knowledge of working in a school setting prior to accepting a position.

Occupational therapy personnel also responded similarly when asked to list the needs of occupational therapy in education settings. Although with differing frequencies, both the rural and urban personnel listed issues of service provision (caseload size, time, space for therapy, money for equipment); consultation skills; and continuing education resources as the top three areas of need. This suggests that even though service provision patterns differ, many basic needs are the same for all school personnel.

When looking at attitudes toward school-based services, the occupational therapy students' responses were different from occupational therapy personnel (both rural and urban) on items which reflected of knowledge other team members such as regular education teachers, special education teachers, and special education directors. Occupational therapy personnel indicated they felt other team members did not have a good understanding of what occupational therapy is or what specific treatment theories entailed. Students tended to respond neutrally. This could be due to the students' lack of exposure to the educational setting. Additional the personnel attitudes support a need for increased inservice education for the team about occupational therapy's role in special education.

Rural personnel responses varied from both urban therapists and students on items about service provision patterns and the age of the populations to be prioritized. With the large geographic areas covered by rural personnel, alternate patterns of service provision have had to be considered. Rural personnel are also more likely to serve persons throughout their development and into adulthood due to the service structure in rural areas, leading to more varied pattern of age priorities. 75% of urban personnel prioritized young children; perhaps with multiple staffing, these persons are more likely to specialize on a smaller age range. Students reported equal ratings across all ages to be served. This attitude may reflect the changing attitudes of society and the profession to meet the changing needs of the children with handicaps as they move from childhood to adolescence.

Urban therapists reported they felt regular education teachers are not prepared to meet the needs of children with handicaps in their classrooms. Rural personnel (82%) reported neutral attitudes regarding this statement. Urban districts often employ higher numbers of specialized personnel, such as special education teachers and related service personnel. In rural settings, fewer specialized personnel exist, thus leading to more frequent placement of children with handicaps in the regular classroom thus resulting in regular classroom teachers being experienced in dealing with special needs. Additionally, urban personnel reported they felt teachers are interested in inter-disciplinary work. Rural personnel also agree, but not as strongly. This could be due to urban personnel being more available to teachers with more opportunities at each school. Rural personnel may only serve each school on a weekly basis and with increased travel time between schools may not have the opportunity to consult with teachers or have team meetings as often.

Attitudes regarding administrative support for occupational therapy differed for the groups of occupational therapy personnel. Urban therapists felt administrators supported referrals for services. Almost three-quarters of the rural therapists were neutral on this support. This may be due to the increased accessibility of urban therapists to the administrators, possible because of closer proximity. 91% of the rural personnel indicated neutral attitudes and 9% indicated positive attitudes about principal's parental requests for occupational therapy services. 63% of the urban personnel were neutral and 25% were positive about the same issue. Again, this may be due to the urban personnel being more available to the schools they serve.

Twenty-two of the twenty-five items on the CIQ had similar patterns of choices for all three groups. The three items which varied had very different patterns of responses. In one case the three groups answered very differently from each other. For a second item the rural occupational therapy personnel and the urban occupational therapy personnel had similar patterns with the occupational therapy responding differently. The final item was responded to differently by the two groups of occupational therapy personnel with the students following the trend of the urban personnel. In general students also tended to place more students in the more restrictive settings (special class all day or not for public education). These differences in responses point out several implications for student training. First, students need to become more aware of what can be done to facilitate mainstreamed placement of children with learning problems. This would provide them with the information leading toward attitudes that more closely match the attitudes of practicing clinicians. From other data presented, rural occupational therapy personnel state teachers are competent to provide education for children with handicaps. Because of the lower incidence of handicapping conditions, and therefore fewer special educators available, support for regular education teachers is a major role for occupational therapy personnel in rural educational settings.

Recommendations:

The following recommendations for preservice training of occupational therapy students were identified from the preliminary data. First, students need a better understanding of the educational system. This includes knowledge of the state and federal laws, educational philosophy, and the process necessary for providing related services. Additionally, occupational therapy personnel need a better understanding of what educators (both regular and special) know and are capable of doing in their classrooms. The occupational therapy personnel will be more capable of facilitating teacher effectiveness in incorporating environmental changes for children with special needs. Secondly, occupational therapy students should understand patterns of service provision and how to use the various patterns effectively. In rural settings where the personnel have higher numbers of schools and children as well as increased mileage, alternatives to direct service must be considered. Students must be taught the importance of empowering others with skills that will be beneficial to these children. The final recommendation is for occupational therapy students to begin the process problem-solving for efficient use of resources. Time, money, space, and equipment resources will continue to be issues in service provision. So occupational therapy personnel must use available resources efficiently.

Occupational therapy continues to be a valued resource in public education. By addressing the specific needs identified by practicing clinicians new graduates can be more well prepared to serve rural educational systems. The beneficial outcomes will not only be for the professionals but also for the children and families receiving services.

Table 1
Occupational Therapy Personnel Demographic Data

	Rural	Urban
Educational Background		
Bachelor of Science	10 (100%)	19 (100%)
Master of Science	4 (40%)	10 (53%)
Years in OT	3 1/2-18 yrs (Mean=10)	2-20 yrs (Mean=9.5)
Years in Pediatric OT	2-16 yrs (Mean=8)	2-13 yrs (Mean=8)
Years in Public Schools	2-11 (Mean=6)	2-12 (Mean=6)
Services Provided		
Number of Schools Served	1-30 (Mean=7)	1-22 (Mean=11)
Miles Traveled per week	0-125 (Mean=38)	0-325 (Mean=181)
Number of Children Served	12-60 (Mean=41)	23-90 (Mean=56)

Table 2
Preservice Content Areas

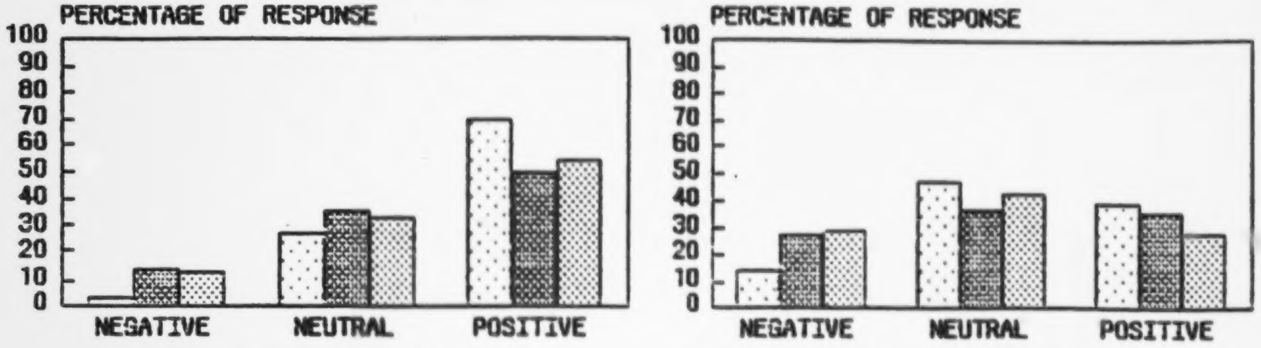
Urban	Rural
Child development (37%)	Evaluation/interpretation (50%)
Communication skills (31%)	Advance Sciences (40%)
Treatment techniques (31%)	Child development (40%)
Writing IEP (26%)	Program development (30%)
Advance Sciences (26%)	Service delivery (30%)
Consultation skills (26%)	Communication (30%)
Evaluation/interpretation skills (26%)	Educational philosophy/aims (30%)

Table 3
Needs in Occupational Therapy Service Delivery in Educational Settings

Urban	Rural
Consultation skills (42%)	Caseload/X/Space (100%)
Caseload/Time/Schedule/ (37%)	Consultation (40%)
Money (37%)	Continuing Education Resources (40%)
Continuing Education Resources (32%)	Prioritizing/criteria (30%)
Differentiating Educational/ Medical model (26%)	Service Delivery (21%)
Service Delivery (20%)	Differentiating Medical/ Educational Model (20%)
Treatment Planning Skills (16%)	Function as team member (20%)
Establishing Academically relevant goals (16%)	Use of aids, paraprofessional, COTA (20%)
Function as team members (16%)	Efficient Documentation (20%)
Use of aids, paraprofessional/ or COTA (16%)	Treatment Planning (10%)
Educating about OT (16%)	Establishing Academically Relevant goals (10%)
Efficient documentation (16%)	Monitoring Students (10%)
Early intervention (11%)	Student Preparation (10%)
Student Preparation (11%)	Support for single OT (10%)
Assessment tools (5%)	
Advocacy Role (5%)	

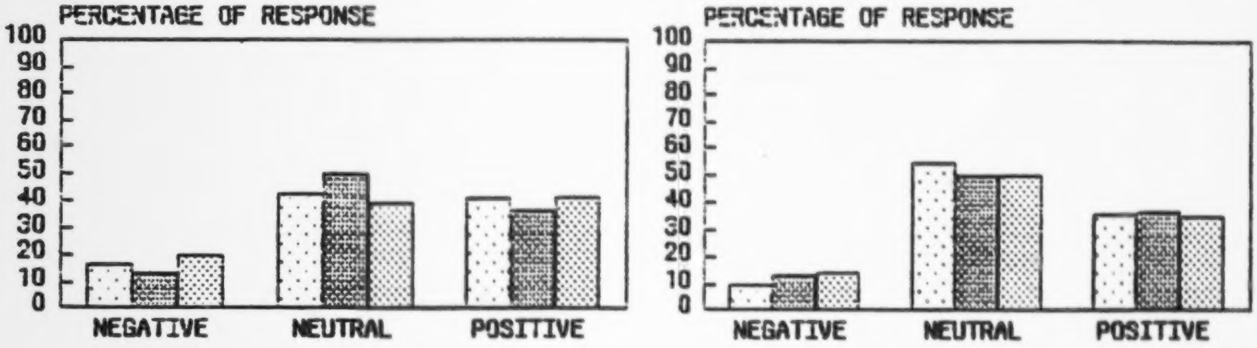
GRAPH 1.

Attitudes Toward School—Based Services



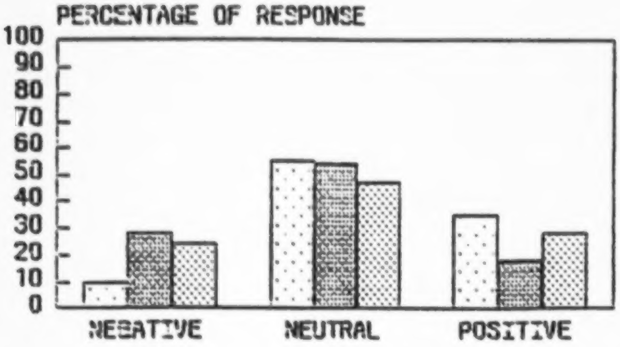
General Issues:
Education for Handicapped

Role of Occupational Therapy in Schools



Interdisciplinary Team Approach

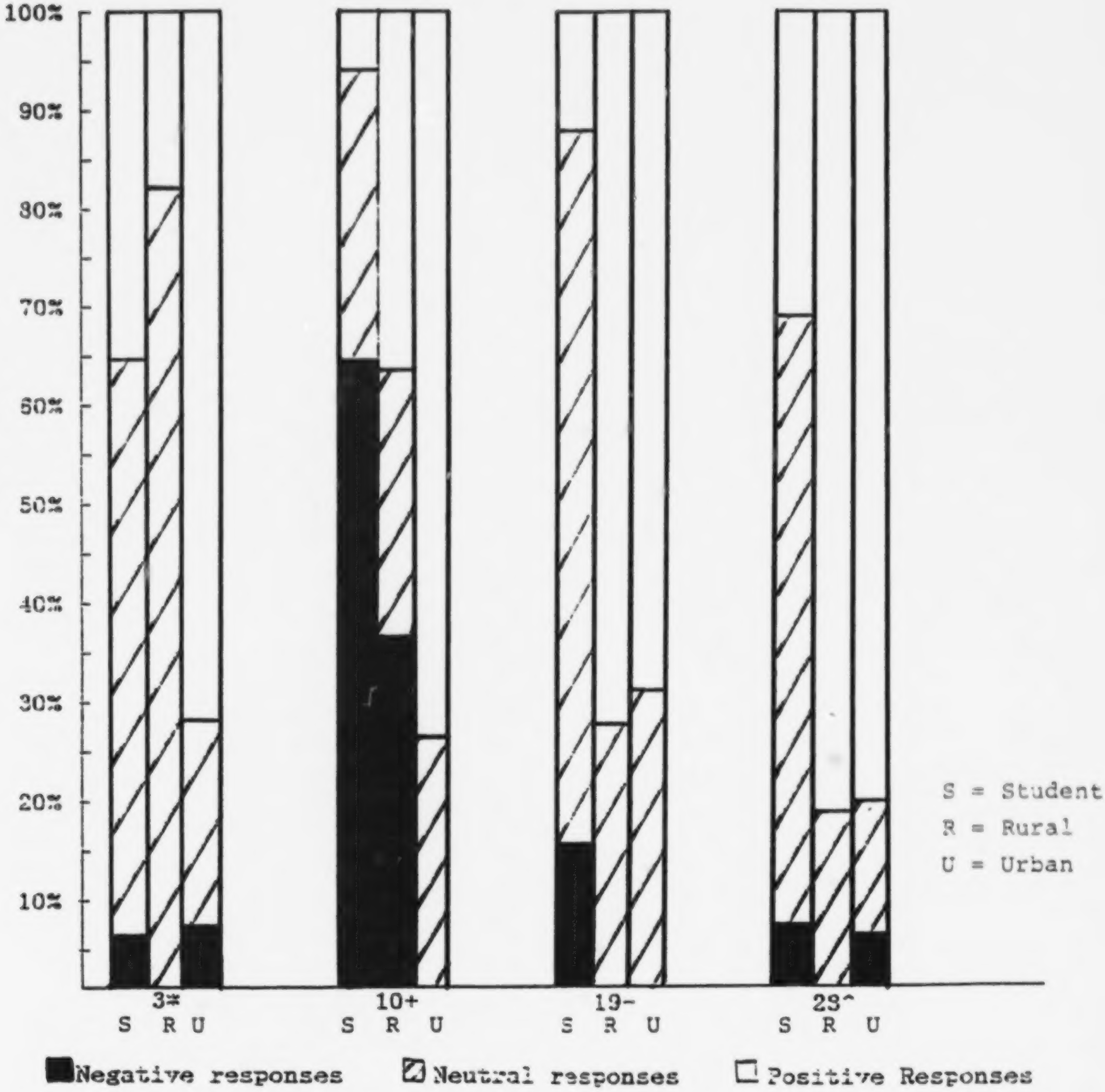
Training of Special Education Personnel



Related Service Issues

░ O.T. Students ▓ O.T. Personnel — Rural ▒ O.T. Personnel — Urban

Table 4: Comparison among occupational therapy students, rural occupational therapy practioners and urban occupational therapy practioners on selected items of the Attitudes Toward School Based Services Questionaire.



*3. Teachers in regular classroom programs are not prepared to have handicapped students placed in their classroom.

+10. Occupational therapy has more to offer pre-school and early primary school-aged students than to students enrolled in secondary educational programs.

-19. Teachers do not understand the basic principles of sensory-motor development.

^28. Regular classroom teachers have little knowledge of occupational therapy service.

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MEETING TRANSITION NEEDS OF THE MILDLY HANDICAPPED IN RURAL AREAS: PERSONNEL AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Providing training to special education teachers in rural areas is a considerable challenge for rural school districts and universities. Sparse populations and remoteness can create a sense of professional isolation for teachers outside major population centers. In Utah, the University of Utah Department of Special Education is attempting to meet this challenge through the implementation of several federally-funded projects designed to meet rural teacher training needs.

One of these is the Rural Transition Teacher Preparation Project (RTTPP), initiated in 1986. The mission of this project has been to train a group of rural special educators to be clinical instructors for the Special Education Department. In this capacity these educators serve as delivery agents of courses designed to improve transition services to mildly and moderately handicapped students in rural areas. Each Clinical Instructor receives on-campus training and practical experience in the area of secondary transition services. They are then able to train rural junior and senior high school teachers in methods to improve transition programming, including curriculum, instruction, assessment, and use of community agencies.

This field-based delivery system has greatly improved the department's ability to provide training to special education teachers in remote areas of the state. It has also helped to reduce the professional isolation felt by rural special educators. The Rural Transition Teacher Preparation Project currently augments the masters degree program in transition services and rural certification programs offered by the Special Education Department.

The Training Model

The most familiar transition training models were developed for teachers of the severely handicapped, therefore, a somewhat different model was utilized to accommodate teachers of mild/moderate handicapped. It is a variation on Wehman's Three Stage Vocational Transition Model (1984) which separates services into 1) an input and foundation stage which is essentially secondary school curriculum and instruction, 2) a process stage in which a transition plan is developed, and 3) an employment outcome stage in which the student is placed in a job. The remainder of this paper will be used to describe stage 1 elements of the transition model as used in the RTTPP project to deliver functional, integrated, community-based instruction to secondary mildly and moderately handicapped students.

The Instructional Foundation

Part of the formula for success in any educational program is having clear, effective instructional procedures (Hosford, 1984). They can provide the base out of which the curriculum can grow. For purposes of teaching functional transition skills, a seven-step model is suggested. It is patterned after a set of instructional procedures that has been validated by Deshler, Alley, Warner, & Schumaker (1981) as a critical component of the Strategies Intervention Model (SIM).

Step I: Determining the Need for the Skills

If teachers are to provide instruction in functional transition skills, they first must determine which skills will receive the highest priority for instruction. This is the initial step of the instructional procedure. Important functional skills can be found by continuously assessing the local environment and identifying specific tasks that are required for successful job performance (Wehman, 1984). Figure 1 shows an example of a job skills checklist that can be used for this assessment. Specific functional skills are grouped under the subject category by which it is addressed in the school program. These correspond to skill areas typically found in school districts' core curricula. When modifying a handicapped student's program, it is a simple matter to place functional skills in the context of subjects commonly taught in regular classes. Once a number of checklists have been collected from various community employers, common skills can be identified.

An IEP team can use this information to match a student's occupational preferences with skills actually used in those occupations. Since few high school students have a clear vision of their ultimate vocation, and since transition often means changing from one occupation to another, it is in the students' best interest to be provided with skills that are transferable within and among a variety of occupations (Greenan, 1987). Collection of checklist information is also a good "foot in the door" with employers who might agree to accept students for on-site training.

Figure 1

JOB SKILLS CHECKLIST

Instructions: Check those behaviors that pertain to successful performance in your work setting:

LISTENING

___ receiving oral directions

___ attendance at staff meetings

___ taking phone messages

___ receiving intercom messages

Specific examples: ______________________________

____

Other skills: ______________________________

READING

___ manuals

___ reports

___ written directions

___ magazines/journals/newspapers ___ computer programs

Specific examples: ______________________________

____

Other skills: ______________________________

WRITING

___ reports ___ business letters ___ memos

Specific examples: ______________________________

Other skills: ______________________________

SPEAKING

___ giving directions to others ___ asking questions

___ participation at staff meetings ___ oral reports

___ conversation with customers ___ formal presentations

Specific examples: ______________________________

____

Other skills: ______________________________

MATHEMATICS

___ calculating ___ estimating ___ measurement

Specific examples: ______________________________

____

Other skills: ______________________________

THINKING

Describe specific occasions when an employee might be required to do problem solving and/or creative thinking. Use examples from the past if you wish.

SOCIAL SKILLS

Describe specific occasions when an employee is required to engage in social interaction. Think not only of routine socialization but also challenging social situations.

Step 2: Determining Student Strengths and Weaknesses

It is unfair to assume that the existence of a handicapping condition automatically means failure to perform functional skills. Once a locally valid functional curriculum has been identified, it is necessary to see if students are indeed deficient in these areas.

The goal of this step is to have students perform task similar to ones required in a setting relevant to the student. For example, if a student has expressed an interest in retail sales and/or office clerical work, a needed skill might be completing forms such as sales tickets, inventory control sheets, or order forms. A pre-test activity might involve having the student read selected forms and fill them in with information provided. Results of the activity would then be analyzed and communicated to the students.

Step 3: Motivating the Student to Learn

Lack of motivation and general disaffection with school is an educational albatross for many low achievers. In contrast, it is generally acknowledged that adult learners do not depend on extrinsic reinforcers to motivate them to learn. Rather, their motivation is primarily internal; it emamates from the desire to meet a felt need (Knowles, 1970). Since transition means considering the approaching adulthood of students, it seems reasonable to apply some adult learning principles to them. Perhaps students should feel the need to learn before being expected to put effort into it. There should at least be an attempt on the part of teachers to create a purpose for learning.

Results of the Job Skills Checklist can be used at this point to demonstrate to students what skills are important in the eyes of potential employers. Students are often surprised at how often the same skill will be required across several divergent types of businesses. A student who has had little interest in learning to write because he expects to enter a blue collar trade might suddenly find that writing plays an important role in being promoted in many of the companies he is interested in working for. It is not uncommon to find supervisors, foremen, or personnel directors from local businesses who are willing to speak to classes about specific jobs and the range of skills needed to do them. Getting this information directly from the job source can mean more to the disaffected student than hearing it from a teacher.

The ultimate goal of this step is to have the student explain why a given skill is important for him or her to learn. Students will be expected to "master" this step. This means that if a student cannot give a rationale for learning, the teacher will wait until he or she can before continuing with instruction. This probably seems unreasonable in light of some students' persistent apathy about learning. But unless motivation is addressed openly and becomes part of the teaching routine, it is unlikely that students will feel any incentive to change poor attitudes. It also prevents the teacher from automatically assuming that students are unmotivated.

Step 4: Describe/Model/Rehearse the Skill

The teacher will, of course, be required to actively present the skills using appropriate instructional techniques. A useful sequence is as follows: first, describe the skill, orienting the student to what is expected; second, model or demonstrate the skill, showing specifically how it can be applied to a variety of situations; third, rehearse the skill, involving students in naming the steps and substeps. A structured approach is suggested in which teachers: 1) proceed in small steps but at a brisk pace, 2) give detailed and redundant explanations, 3) provide many examples, 4) ask and elicit a large number of questions, 5) correctly model the skill, 6) repeat the material until students understand (Rosenshine, 1983).

Step 5: Provide guided practice

Classroom-based practice follows the skill description. The objective is to have students apply the skill to certains tasks within a controlled environment. The assumption here is that professional teachers are better capable of facilitating student mastery of certain functional skills than are employers. This is especially true of job-related academic skills which are prerequisites to adequate functioning in just about any job (Diehl & Mikulecky, 1980).

The uniqueness of this step comes in the application of "naturalistic", or functional, outcomes that more closely parallel occupational applications of skills learned in school. Figure 2 contrasts some skill applications in school and in occupations.

Figure 2

Learning and Teaching in School and Real Life

	Learning in School	Learning in Life
Math	-all information present	-information lacking
Writing	-creative	-instrumental
	-for teachers	-for a variety of audiences
Reading	-textbook dominant	-various forms of print a graphics
Speaking	-controlled by formal conventions	-controlled by common courtesy
Instruction	-formal	-informal
	-classroom-based	-workplace-based
	-large group	-individual/small group
	-reading/listening intensive	-listening/watching intensive
	-language-based outcomes	-performance-based outcomes

For example, it might have been determined in step 1 that writing skills are needed for a variety of jobs. Use of the Job Skills Checklist has even provided a list of specific writing tasks that entry-level employees would be asked to perform. One of these might be writing inter-office memos. Language Arts classes deal with writing skills but the desired outcomes are usually well crafted paragraphs, themes, and essays. Learning these skills are certainly useful but they don't necessarily get to the heart of the matter for low-achieving students. For these students, more time needs to be spent applying basic writing skills to functional outcomes.

Once it has been demonstrated that a student cannot write memos (Step 2) and that the student can explain why this skill should be learned (Step 3), a technique for writing that can be applied to memos will be introduced (Step 4). Then, in Step 5, the student will be given memo-writing practice under the watchful eye of the teacher in the presumably safe, predictable, and nurturing environment of the classroom where mistakes should be encouraged, corrections should be constructive, and feedback should be plentiful and positive.

Step 6: Arrange Practical Practice

Once mastery has been demonstrated in Step 5, students will be placed at job sites to practice and generalize skills in the often-times unsafe, unpredictable, competitive environment of the workplace where mistakes can be costly, corrections can be an annoyance, and feedback can be perfunctory or negative. Instead of being put in the position to actually teach skills, employers are asked to monitor and custom-fit classroom-acquired skills to the particular demands and standards of the business. Employers engage in oversight and perfomance appraisal of on-site trainees rather than in direct instruction.

Step 7: Monitor Generalization

The final instructional step involves collecting follow-up data regarding long-term use of functional skills. Students will continue to be placed in community-referenced sites in order to refine work adjustment skills. Placements will be changed periodically to allow students opportunities to adjust generic skills to particular workplaces. Concurrently, students will receive classroom instruction in lower priority skills.

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How Database Management Systems Can Be Used to Evaluate Program Effectiveness in Small School Districts

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Abstract

Sophisticated database management systems (DBMSs) for microcomputer systems are now becoming increasingly easy to use, allowing small school districts to develop their own autonomous databases for tracking enrollment and student progress in Special Education. DBMS applications can be designed that can be maintained by district personnel with little technical support. This paper presents a strategy for developing a database for local program evaluation in small districts by presenting a conceptual model of a database for program evaluation, and by displaying the use of a sample database from such a system. It is suggested that such internal evaluation systems will efficiently provide documentation that is helpful in program review and program development.

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How Database Management Systems Can Be Used to Evaluate Program Effectiveness in Small School Districts

Teachers and administrators are increasingly interested in evaluating special education programs so they can provide themselves with accurate feedback and inform program reviewers about the effectiveness of their special education programs. This means that districts must keep large sets of data, called "databases," that can be analyzed to describe the progress of students in their special programs.

In the past, the expense and time required to collect and analyze database information was the privilege of large districts who could afford to employ data technicians, particularly those who had access to university mainframe computers. These districts were able to present rather impressive data analyses to program reviewers, and hence they probably had an advantage in their appeals for grants and special funding. They certainly had a good source of information that could assist in internal program review and internal program enhancement.

Developments in computer hardware and software technology in the last five years have made affordable office computer systems available that would be more than adequate in processing data for students in small to medium-sized school districts. Computers such as the Apple Macintosh™, IBM AT™, and IBM-compatibles now have quite sophisticated data processing capabilities, which not only allow complex data management, but allow elaborate capabilities for desktop publishing of data output. Current hard disk technology permits ample record storage. Networking capabilities are increasing, permitting database use by different people at different sites. A wide array of data management software, called "database management systems" (or DBMSs), is available, ranging from sophisticated networking database languages to "friendly" single-machine programs (Bryan, 1988; Custer, 1988; Finkelstein & Pascal, 1988, Greitzer, 1986; Harrington, 1987, 1988a, 1988b; Petreley, 1987; Spezzano, 1987). DBMS "applications" (i.e., DBMSs programmed to manage data in a specified manner appropriate for the specific applied needs of an organization) are relatively easy to design with some programs, while others permit quite sophisticated data management.

Depending on the application, sophistication and ease of design are both possible. Some of the easiest and least sophisticated "relational" DBMSs (DBMSs that can relate different sets of data to each other) are probably more than adequate in managing the data needed to follow the progress of students through a small district's special education programs. The improving quality of the software is reducing the need to rely on programming consultants and data technicians. This situation permits school districts to keep their own autonomous databases.

Current DBMS Use For Special Education Recordkeeping

An informal survey conducted by the author in 1987 suggests that some California and Oregon districts are just becoming aware of these new possibilities in data management. In phone calls to twelve California districts and two Oregon districts, DBMSs for special education records were being used in eleven of the districts. Each of these districts had used "canned" enrollment programs (preset programs which had set structure and functions), nine being networked to regional offices. Seven of these districts had found that the inflexibility of the canned programs hampered their recordkeeping.

These districts are now involved with their regional offices in "upgrading" their hardware, software, and networks so they can use more flexible and powerful DBMSs (cf. Melymuka, 1986; Greitzer, 1986). Programming consultants have been contracted to implement the upgrades. The popular DBMS dBase III (now dBase III Plus) is being used in all seven cases on IBM-PC compatibles.

The new systems will allow these districts to store and analyze more data than they could previously. The systems will greatly enhance the districts' database networking capabilities, and they will also allow the districts to enhance and change the structure of their recordkeeping systems over time. Installation will involve training key personnel and the provision of instructional guides that both explain the DBMS and the districts' specific application of the DBMS. Such steps are essential to ensure that a database remains useful (Melymuka, 1986; Pepper, 1986). If training and installation are properly implemented, the districts should be less reliant on consultants than they were when they were using the less powerful and less manipulable canned programs.

It is important to note that all systems used by the districts surveyed, including the most advanced upgrades, have one purpose: to track enrollment. Districts installing DBMSs with adequate active memory and storage can do much more. Importantly, they can be used to track the academic progress of special education students through their programs. To illustrate this capability, some explanation of the terms and functions of DBMSs is needed.

How DBMSs Organize Data

DBMSs run on a simple model of data organization (the complexity of DBMSs has more to do with how data is managed). Each bit of information describing an entity is called an "entry." DBMSs have entries organized into basic categories, which are called "fields." A collection of related fields of data pertaining to one entity is called a "record." The collection of all the data in all the records is called a "file." A file is the highest level of data organization in a DBMS; the terms "file" and "database" can be used interchangeably.

Imagine the many categories of Special Education data that describe students. Each student has a name, date of birth, handicapping condition(s), enrollment date, et cetera, all of these being categories describing the student. These categories could be fields in a database. Records would consist of the information in each field that pertains to a particular student. The entire collection of records describing all the students in the district would be a complete file. Let us call this the "Student" file.

But information can be filed in different ways, and to the extent that the records and fields in a database need to be organized differently, there may a need to file the same information in different ways. Now imagine a separate database file, called "Enrollment," that describes the characteristics of classes rather than students. Class type, teacher name, class size, et cetera would be fields describing each class. Importantly, each class would have a list of enrolled students. Hence, there is relation between the Enrollment and Student files, i.e.,. that each student is enrolled in a class. The two files have a logical "link," which allows information in one file to be used in another. A "relational" DBMS can manage the exchange and use of information between two or more files through the use of such links. This not only allows for time to be saved by avoiding redundant entries in the separate files, but it also allows the analysis of relations between student characteristics and their enrollment.

Links can define relations between files so that records in one file are related to more than one record in another. The latter file is called a "repeating collection." For example, students in Special Education are periodically tested and retested with the same tests so that a repeating collection of records in a "Scores" file could pertain to one student in the Student file. The relations between the Student file and the Enrollment file involve an even more complex type of linking, since one student can be enrolled in more than one class over time, and one class will usually have more than one student at any one time. Hence, the Enrollment and Student files would have links designed to have repeating collections of each other. The art of DBMS design involves planning and defining file structures and their links so data is related easily and meaningfully.

Tracking Academic Progress

Figure 1 is a model of a DBMS system using sample Student, Enrollment, and Scores files described above. The model is representative of visual displays that can be used by some programs (for example, Reflex Plus, dBase Mac, and Fourth Dimension - Harrington, 1987, 1988a; Custer, 1988) to design database applications.[1] The model illustrates the three files, each with fields pertinent to describing information commonly kept in hardcopy Special Education files. Fields are also included that logically link the files to each other.

The model is derived directly from the IEP (Individualized Educational Plan) process mandated for Special Education programs. Upon initial referral, a student file is set up allowing basic characteristics of the student to be described. Subsequently, evaluation results in the inclusion of test scores and derived IEP goals. Enrollment follows, a direct result of the IEP process. Separating the Scores and Enrollment files from the initial Student file permits repeated collections of evaluation data (which consists of test results and evaluation of IEP goals) and repeated enrollment in Special Education programs.

The underlined fields in the files are called "key" fields. These are fields that uniquely define each record. Key fields are used by many DBMSs to efficiently identify individual records, and thereby speed information processing. The last name, first name, and date of birth will usually suffice to identify a key Student record (if not, a unique marker could be added on one of two identical sets of key records). Program, teacher name, and location of a Special Education class would suffice as keys for Enrollment. Review date, student name and birthdate could be used as keys in the Scores file, but a redundant entry of the names and birthdate would be required. DBMSs can be designed to insert a unique sequence number automatically to make a key; the Test* field would be used for this purpose.

Having defined each unique record, the links between files can then relate different records in different files. The evaluation data obtained on different review dates for the same student are linked as a repeating collection so that for every Student record there is a set of one or more Scores records (each pertaining to each time the student is reevaluated). One Enrollment record is linked to one or more sets of students' Scores. This latter result does not reflect that test scores or IEP goals necessarily dictate certain programs, but rather the more basic relation that a set of evaluated students will be enrolled in one program at any point in time.

The model allows the tracking of students over time by linking their repeating evaluations and their repeating enrollment in different programs in different school years. The linking structure allows for the portrayal of a student's evaluation results and enrollment history. It also allows the portrayal of the results of being enrolled in different programs. Hence, information pertinent to program evaluation and individual student progress can be accessed from the same DBMS.

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[1] Reflex Plus, by Borland International (4585 Scotts Valley Drive, Scotts Valley, CA, 95066), was used with an Apple Macintosh for the research in this paper. The use of Reflex Plus in this paper not meant to portray either an endorsement or a criticism of the program (see reviews by Spezzano, 1987, and Custer, 1988), nor is the use of an Apple Macintosh meant as a recommendation that other microcomputers be ignored. There are at least six DBMSs for the Apple Macintosh that would be adequate for the purposes described in this paper; there are at least 40 for IBM PCs and IBM compatibles.

The model allows much flexibility in data entry. By definition, Special Education students have highly different characteristics and needs; as a result, very different evaluations occur for different students. By planning fields in the Scores file that allow entries for scores from the many different evaluation instruments that could be used, records for virtually any Special Education student can be kept. For most DBMSs, it is not a problem to add fields to a file after the application is in use (providing file and linking structure remains intact).

Entry Forms

The design of such a DBMS application should include "entry forms" that allow easy data input. The "forms" consist of screen documents that are designed to present fields for data entry. Entry forms should be designed to make data entry as easy as possible. Fields and field labels can be moved to allow rapid sequential entry, or arranged so they resemble a hardcopy data form submitted by teachers.

The following examples utilize an entry form and database design that is abbreviated, for the purposes of illustration, to show only academic progress in the Scores file (again, adding fields to such a file should be no problem, even after data has been entered in the abbreviated form), using fabricated data. Figure 2 shows a screen display of an entry form for the file system. The fields are represented by boxes and provided with labels describing them.

Most DBMSs can be designed so that the information that is entered meets certain specifications. For example, the fields that have dates can be prespecified so that typographical errors in form (e.g., 3/15/766) will immediately be followed by a request to correct the form error. Even more strict limitations can be made; for example, if one knows that all review dates will be in the 87-88 school year, entries can be limited to only allow dates within that year. The number of decimals in a number field, such as the grade equivalent fields, can be prespecified to have only one decimal place to the right of the decimal point. Fields with letters can also be constrained: fields for programs can be constrained to only allow entries such as "RSP," "SDC-LH," and abbreviations for the other programs within a district. Entry of teacher names can be constrained to allow only their correct spellings.

DBMSs have "programming languages" that allow such constraints to be created. Many have guided menus that facilitate the derivation of equations such as "Program = RSP OR Program = SDC-LH OR . . . ." Equations can be easily

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derived to search for files (as in Figure 2, where in the top panel an equation searching for "Dean" was entered) and to make "calculation fields." These are fields that automatically display the results of certain calculations in each record. For example, the average growth of a student in reading and math may be calculated in the Scores file. Class size could be automatically calculated with each entry into the Enrollment file in the Number of Students field.

Blank entries also pose little difficulty. Entries may be left blank for fields of reading and mathematics achievement for profoundly handicapped students. Since intelligence testing often does not occur in each review, blank entries for IQ scores can occur in some of a student's Scores records, and can be filled in others.

The repeating collection of the Scores file is represented by the fields surrounded by solid bars in Figure 2. Entry of the results of repeated evaluations can be included in those fields using commands that reproduce them each time the student is reevaluated and new data is to be entered. Thus, entry forms are not only used to open new records, but to edit and add information to existing records. If such editing needs to be restricted, many DBMSs provide methods so data can be protected.

Separate Entry Systems

The entry form in Figure 2 allows entry for all the information in the Student, Scores, and Enrollment files. This avoids the redundant entry of data regarding enrollment, program type, and class assignments. This is a convenience, but there may be times when redundancy may be preferred. For example, each year special programs are planned prior to enrolling existing students. When planning and implementing such programs, it would be preferable to enter their existence in a separate entry form anticipating enrollment.

Many DBMSs allow the use of separate entry forms for data entering the same filing system. Figure 3 is an example of an entry form for a class. The teacher, program year, and location were entered. Initially, the repeating collection of anticipated students was blank; as students are enrolled, the collection displays their names with selected information already available from other files. The field calculating the number of students is programmed to automatically count the number of students in the class as they are entered. Thus, an entry form can be designed to display and calculate information obtained from other files.

The additional entry form can also enter information in fields already included in the original entry form. Enrollment information in the entry form in Figure 2 can be obtained by making entries in the form in Figure 3. The file structure in Figure 1 allows entries so students with existing records can simply be enrolled in new programs, and this new enrollment will be automatically entered into their Student and Scores records.

Reports

"Reports" can be either screen displays or printouts of data obtained from the filing system. Like entry forms, their fields can be displayed in different ways, and thus arranged to present information of interest. The information in reports can consist solely of data from an individual record or as compilations of data obtained from multiple records.

Figure 4 is an example of a report from an individual student record. Note that the data is rearranged from how it was presented in the entry form in Figure 2. Calculation fields are added showing the selected student's average growth.

Figure 5 is an example of a report listing a set of records in the Enrollment file. DBMSs provide search equations that specify which records are to be selected and the order in which they are displayed. Figure 5 is a selection of all Special Education classes for the 1987-1988 school year presented in alphabetical order.

Like entry forms, reports can use information from different files. Figure 6 is an example of a report listing a set of individual records from the Scores file presented for a certain class (which is defined by an Enrollment record). Again, calculations can be made on the selected data, allowing an analysis of class and program effectiveness.

DBMSs currently on the market vary in the extent to which calculation fields can be designed for the purposes of making reports about enrollment and student progress. The great majority of DBMS use is for business applications, so some of the statistical applications of interest to educators and program reviewers are neglected by some DBMSs. DBMSs on the current market also vary in the extent they can make graphical displays of data, such as line graphs and bar charts.

Despite these difficulties, reports with basic statistics can be obtained from most DBMSs. Such reports are what all the recordkeeping and data management is meant for. DBMSs generally make such reports easy to design, and the data they include easy to search for. Rather impressive printouts can be made quickly and efficiently. It should be hoped that such program review can be helpful in program improvement and program development.

Selecting Hardware and Software

The DBMSs that are capable of managing a file system such as in Figure 1 generally require what are referred to as "office" microcomputers. Again, these include the Apple Macintosh, IBM ATs, and IBM compatibles. They tend not to include the Apple IICs, Apple IIEs, and Commodore 64s that are so popular as educational microcomputers. Suitable DBMSs run best with a maximum of active memory, so an IBM AT or compatible would be preferred over an IBM XT, and a Macintosh Plus or SE would be preferred over earlier Macintosh versions. Even in a small district with only two or three hundred Special Education students, the multiplicity of floppy diskettes needed to store their records would greatly hamper the speed and efficiency of a DBMS. A hard disk that contains all the student data should be used with the machine; its size should be determined from estimates of record size and student enrollment.

Record size will depend on the DBMS used and on the design of the file system. Hence, it is important to select hardware and software together. A consultant who specializes in DBMSs should probably be used for this purpose. It is fortunate that many of the DBMSs available can more than meet the needs of a small district, but caution is nevertheless warranted: be sure that suggested hardware and software works for the specific needs of the district before a purchase is made.

This may not be very difficult. In ten of the districts surveyed above, office microcomputers that could run suitable DBMSs were already owned by the districts. Hard disks for these systems were available in eight of the districts. Suitable DBMSs were already owned by three of the districts that had not upgraded their recordkeeping systems. It may simply be a matter of communicating with local staff to find the software and hardware needed to run a file system for Special Education students.

Future Developments

DBMSs in the microcomputer industry are just coming of age (Bryan, 1988; Harrington, 1988b; Finkelstein & Pascal, 1988). Many new capabilities are expected, which can only work to the advantage of organizations such as school districts who need specialized applications. Graphic and statistical capabilities in DBMSs are improving. "Friendly" DBMSs can be expected that make application design even easier. "Communications" are the big theme for 1988. Networking capabilities between offices and between file systems are increasing. Districts' abilities to share data (with respect for confidentiality laws), ideas, and evaluation systems will be greatly increased. This means only good news for small districts, since availability of information with which they can enhance their programs will be increased.

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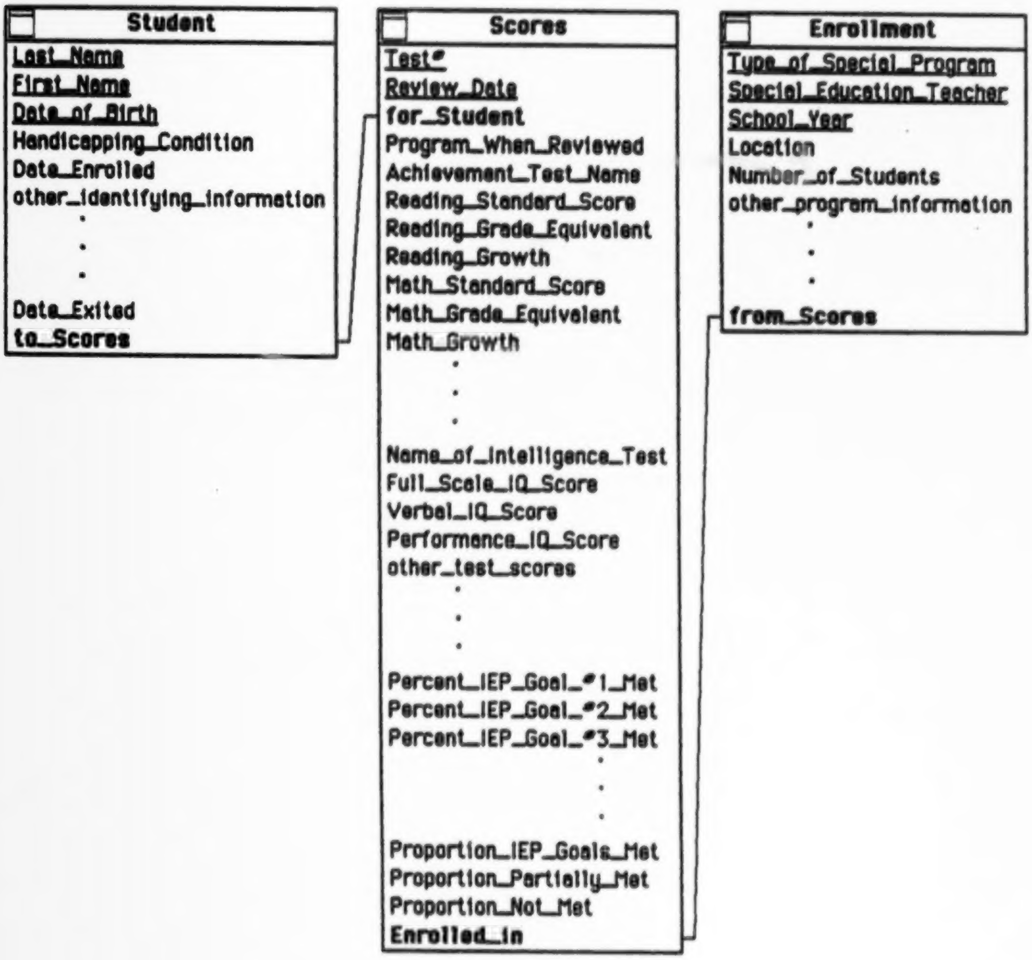
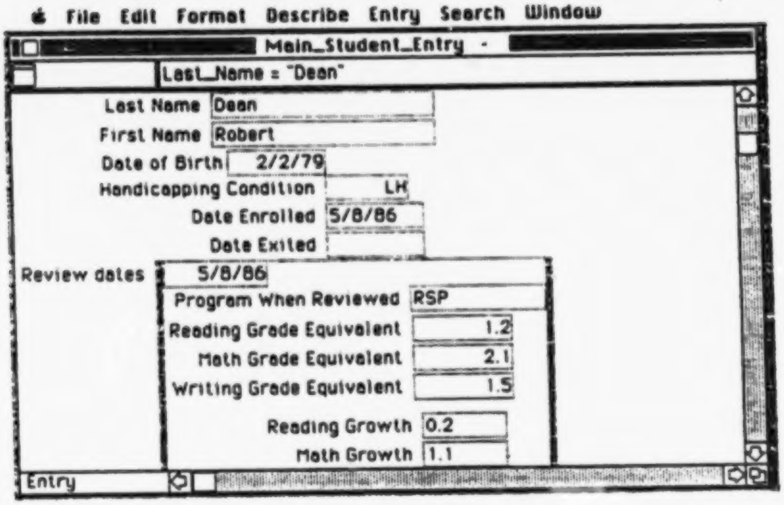


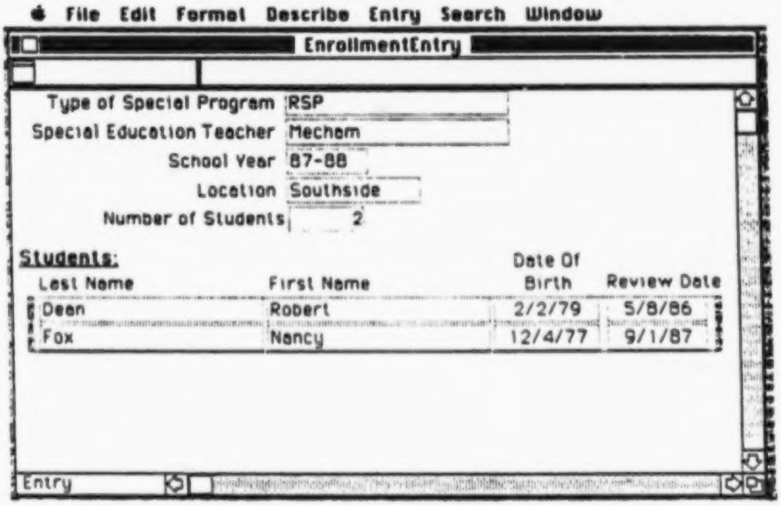
Figure 1. A model of a database design for tracking student progress and enrollment. Each box represents a separate file, with an outline of possible fields. The lines between files represent linked fields.



Last_Name = "Dean"

Last Name: Dean
First Name: Robert
Date of Birth: 2/2/79
Handicapping Condition: LH
Date Enrolled: 5/8/86
Date Exited:
Review dates: 5/8/86
Program When Reviewed: RSP
Reading Grade Equivalent: 1.2
Math Grade Equivalent: 2.1
Writing Grade Equivalent: 1.5
Reading Growth: 0.2
Math Growth: 1.1

Figure 2. The screen for the beginning of an entry form, derived from the file system outlined in Figure 1, with entries for a record.



Type of Special Program: RSP
Special Education Teacher: Mechom
School Year: 87-88
Location: Southside
Number of Students: 2

Students:

Last Name	First Name	Date Of Birth	Review Date
Dean	Robert	2/2/79	5/8/86
Fox	Nancy	12/4/77	9/1/87

Figure 3. A separate entry form for the Enrollment file, derived from the file system outlined in Figure 1, with entries for a record for an RSP class. The Enrollment file is linked to the other files outlined in Figure 1, so that two students enrolled using the entry form in Figure 2 are now enrolled in the class.

Last Name: Jewell
First Name: Peter
Date of Birth: 5/9/72 Handicapping Condition: LH
Date Enrolled: 6/7/83 Date Exited:

Scores:	Review Date	Program When Reviewed	Reading Grade Eq	Math Grade Eq	Writing Grade Eq
	6/15/87	SDC-LH	4.9	7.4	5.8
	6/18/88	SDC-LH	5.4	8.3	6.1
	5/4/89	SDC-LH	6.1	8.7	6.5

Growth:	Review Date	Program When Reviewed	Reading Growth	Math Growth	Writing Growth
	6/15/87	SDC-LH	0.4	1.1	0.5
	6/18/88	SDC-LH	0.5	0.9	0.3
	5/4/89	SDC-LH	0.7	0.4	0.4
		Average yearly growth	0.5	0.8	0.4

Figure 4. An example of a student report, created from data entered into the entry form in Figure 2.

Jefferson Unified School District
Special Education Classes for 87-88 School Year

Program	Teacher	School Year	Location
RSP	Johnson	87-88	Kennedy HS
RSP	Jones	87-88	Northside
RSP	King	87-88	MLKJr. High
RSP	Mecham	87-88	Southside
SDC-LH	Martinsen	87-88	Kennedy HS
SDC-LH	Norman	87-88	Southside
SDC-LH	Smith	87-88	Northside
SDC-SED	Spooner	87-88	Southside
SDC-SH	Miller	87-88	Northside

Figure 5. A list of classes and programs, derived and selected from sample data entered into the entry forms in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Academic Growth in Mr. Norman's LH-SDC
Southside Elementary School

Program	Reading Growth	Math Growth	Writing Growth
SDC-LH	1.1	1.1	0.8
SDC-LH	0.2	1.1	0.7
SDC-LH	0.6	0.8	0.4
SDC-LH	0.7	0.4	0.4
SDC-LH	0.5	0.9	0.3
SDC-LH	0.4	1.1	0.5
SDC-LH	1.0	1.3	0.8
SDC-LH	1.1	0.7	1.1
SDC-LH	0.6	0.4	0.8
SDC-LH	0.5	0.8	0.2
SDC-LH	1.0	1.1	0.9
SDC-LH	0.7	0.2	0.8
SDC-LH	1.1	1.3	1.2
Average Growth	0.7	0.9	0.7
Standard deviation	0.3	0.4	0.3

Figure 6. A report of students' academic growth over a one year period in a Special Day Class, derived from data entered into the entry forms in Figures 2 and 4, with calculation fields providing summary statistics.

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COLLEGE EXTENSION COURSES: AN ACTUAL FIELD EXPERIENCE

With the passage of PL. 94-142, hundreds of thousands of special education classes developed. Needless to say, the school districts were faced with the problem of finding certified teachers. Although the problem has somewhat dissipated, it has not disappeared. In order to provide the necessary college courses, a variety of methods have been implemented. Colleges have established outreach programs, with professors driving or flying to rural areas. Television, satellites, and microwave networks have transmitted courses to one's local school and better yet, into one's living room. Workshops, inservices, correspondence courses, and conventions are other means to accumulate graduate college credits. But still, career moms and dads still find themselves "holed up" in summer school, away from family, friends, and household routines. Many special educators lament each spring that summer vacation again means the transient life of a less than fully certified teacher, heading off to a college campus to fit those needed college classes under his/her belt.

The Iowa Department of Education had anticipated that by the mid 1980's, all special education teachers would be fully certified. In fact, the legislature and Department of Education have refined and expanded the certification requirements so that by the fall of 1988, special education certification will have even higher requirements and standards. Our state prides itself on the highest quality of education for all students, especially our special education children. Since 1975, our state has required us to identify and provide appropriate education for handicapped children, birth through 21 years of age. Our homebound visitation programs, infant stimulation teams, developmental learning centers, and education centers have outstanding methods of reaching the preschool handicapped children. Since the mid-70's vocational programs for high school students have developed into wonderful pre-vocational classes, in school work sites, community job sites, on-the-job training, experienced based career education (EBCE), and college campus programs for handicapped young adults. With the diversity of programs offered handicapped youth, it is little wonder that the local schools continue to need certified special education teachers.

For the past four years, this presenter has been involved in teacher training at the local level. Summer schools have been designed for kindergarten through twelfth grade handicapped students. In order to provide a quality program with small teacher-pupil ratios, it seemed practical to establish practicum sites for teachers. This reduced the teacher-pupil ratio to 1:5 and needless to say, reduced the overall cost of the program. The summer schools focused on enriching the child's positive experiences within a school setting. This philosophy was successfully demonstrated in a daily fashion and validated by the themes the children chose for each summer school (example: "Step Ahead" and "Summer Success"). The summer school program has expanded to two sites with four counties of children being bused into these centers. A total of 130 children and 18 practicum teachers shared four weeks of daily enrichment activities.

The state of Iowa mandated pre-evaluation activities. This "exercise in futility" (as many regular education teacher and administrators labeled it) was not readily accepted nor implemented. This presenter applied for and was granted a "Project Excellence" grant to train teachers to facilitate the pre-referral meetings. Thirty hours of coursework was designed and the teachers participating in the project received two hours of graduate credit for their participation. The natural assignments for the course were to assist other teachers in completing a pre-referral form (designed by the "students"), obtain data through the use of systematic observation forms and teacher interview sheets, compile a variety of interventions, and provide follow-along. The project was very successful, as noted by the teachers who referred cases to the team. This is an excellent way to inservice teachers, when the issue is one's own problem.

As research is demonstrating, resource teachers are not meeting the needs of mildly handicapped students. This presenter designed a course: "An Introduction to the Educational Strategist Model" to provide special educators with the skills needed to serve as "in-building consultants", providing diagnostic and prescriptive services for regular education teachers. The participants in the class are enthusiastic about their new role. In fact, one special education teacher remarked, "I now have a new, fresh outlook on my ability to help mildly handicapped students - through the child's teacher, my colleague."

The most recent "field venture" was to design a two year course of study for certification in Learning Disabilities and Behavior Disorders. The plan was a result of a needs assessment. A joint effort was begun to find a graduate college to work with our staff development personnel. In addition, the Department of Education's certification consultant worked with the Arrowhead staff development program and approved syllabuses for each course. To date, four courses have been offered and three courses are projected for the spring term.

The most gratifying aspect of this two year certification plan is to provide college coursework for three hours daily and then watch the student teachers practice the theories, methods, and materials with the students attending summer school. A true "lab" experience, this moved from the text, lecture, and test model to the experiential mode.

An additional advantage of a local "field experience" is the availability of knowledgeable, experienced resource people. For example, during the "Methods and Materials for Behavior Disordered" class, the following resource individuals shared their time and insight with the class: a ten year old B.D. student, a recent high school graduate, (past member of a B.D. class), a young mother of a B.D. child, elementary and secondary principals, the Director of Special Education, a school psychologist, the state president of the Council for Behavior Disorders, the county mental health referee (judge), a music therapist, and experienced B.D. teachers. The discussions were thought provoking and certainly created more compassion and understanding than any text could instill.

In summary, the "field experience" college courses have been a meaningful method of providing the required teacher training necessary to meet state certification requirements, but most importantly, the needs of the special educator are recognized and these needs are met in a rural setting--by moving the "Ivory Tower" to a "camping-out" site.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25

3:25 - 4:25 PM

Dean K. McIntosh, Gail Raymond
University of South Carolina, Columbia

FOCUSING ON SOCIAL PARTICIPATION SKILLS INSTRUCTION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

PURPOSE

There is a tendency on the part of educators to refer students who are "exhibiting" problems in the classroom for special education evaluation. Rural teachers often find themselves in a situation in which, if they refer a student and placement follows, it means transporting him/her to a different school and environment. Many are hesitant to do this because of the upheaval that results not only for the child but for the family. The purpose of this presentation is to assist teachers and administrators in looking at lack of social skills in the classroom setting as a possible problem area, and the remediation of those skills so that a student need not be referred for evaluation/placement in special education programs.

OBJECTIVES

After this workshop, participants will:

1. Be aware of the need for social participation on the part of rural students;
2. Understand how to evaluate students for the lack of these skills; and
3. Learn some techniques that can be utilized in teaching students how to become social participants in the classroom.

RURAL FOCUS

Rural teachers need to focus in more discreetly on the student and his/her specific problem. Often it is a social participation problem in which the prerequisites social skills to successful learning are not present. It is not that the child has an academic problem. Indeed it may be a problem getting ready to learn.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATION

Far too often students are perceived as having academic problems by teachers, when the problem is, in reality, their inability to utilize successful participation skills. In rural areas referral and placement in special education may mean being moved to another school and long bus rides, plus removal from friends and classmates. Only those that truly need such placement should be referred.

Social participation skills are valued by all teachers, yet many are unaware that the lack of these may be the cause for the problem. Such skills include areas such as sitting down, paying attention, following instructions, maintaining proper eye contact and beginning and finish assignments. No matter if the students are not handicapped, the lack of these social participation skills will make them early candidates for special education consideration.

Through proper training by utilizing the rural environment in which the students live, teachers can assist them in gaining these skills. As a result of improvement of the above areas, there will undoubtedly be more learning taking place on the part of the student. This, in turn, may alleviate, or at least lessen negative student-teacher interaction, and should reduce the number of needless referrals for special education services.

THEME AREA

What Works In The Classroom

Nancy Lavelle
Almansor Education Center
Alhambra, California

PROJECT I-AM

INITIATIVE-ACTION MODEL

For Successful Re-engagement Of Youth At Risk

PURPOSE

The purpose of this project is to introduce a practical approach for working in partnership with at-risk children and youth to re-engage them in school through the enhancement of self-esteem, learning and effective action.

BACKGROUND

- Teen-age suicide is the third leading cause of death among adolescents.
- 23 million American adults read, write and comprehend below the 4th grade level.
- Only 60% of students graduate from high school in California. (In Los Angeles Unified School District the rate drops to 50%).
- More than half the prison population can't read or write.
- 80% of second-time juvenile offenders have been reported to have learning disabilities.
- The number of adolescent mothers is expected to grow 60% in the next five years, with the fastest rate of increase occurring between the ages of 10 and 14.
- More than half of California's high school juniors have experimented with drugs, and 85% have tried alcohol-with the major surge of drug use occurring between the 7th and 9th grades.
- 70-80% of all daytime burglaries are committed by truant juveniles.

The Los Angeles County Office of Education At-Risk Task Force (September, 1986) identified 12 characteristics qualifying a student as at-risk: lack of motivation and interest, low academic achievement, behind in credits required for graduation, over age due to excessive failures in courses, excessive truancies or absences, school behavior problems, conflict with teachers and unrealistic goals. While substance abuse, pregnancy and family relationships were cited, nine of the twelve characteristics were directly school related.

School absence has been found to be the most powerful early predictor of later delinquent behavior (Soriano, 1984; Butterworth, 1984). Effective intervention needs to be provided to divert youth at this critical point. It is the purpose of the Initiative Action Model to interact constructively as soon as juveniles are identified as having serious attendance problems instead of waiting until they are involved in the juvenile justice system, or require more intensive mental health intervention.

WHAT IS THE THEORETICAL BASIS FOR THE INITIATIVE ACTION MODEL?

Four principles form the foundation for the design of the model:

> The key to successful re-engagement in school is the young person's personal decision to do well.
>
> A student's perception of himself as a success or a failure in school is an important determining factor in the decision to do well.
>
> Positive self-esteem is the result of taking specific action toward self-determined goals.
>
> Appropriate specific action emerges in partnership and dialogue with another human being.

WHAT IS THE INITIATIVE ACTION MODEL?

The INITIATIVE ACTION MODEL is designed to re-engage the student at risk for truancy, school failure or delinquency through a self-evaluation and re-commitment process.

The INITIATIVE ACTION MODEL consists of sample dialogues, self-identification and evaluation exercises and assessment tools for use in twelve interactive sessions between a teacher or other committed adult partner and an at-risk youth.

During the twelve sessions, with guidance and assistance, the student is enabled to:

- determine areas of strength and weakness (personal, academic, vocational),

- identify goals,
- design strategies for success,
- develop an ACTION PLAN.

WHAT IS AN ACTION PLAN?

The ACTION PLAN allows at-risk students to take personal responsibiity for identifying and overcoming perceived or actual barriers to success, and to take advantage of opportunities that already exist in their lives.

The ACTION PLAN addresses the following self-assessment questions to be covered in a working dialogue between student and committed partner.

1. Who am I? Who do I want to be/become?

2. What do I want to do/be/accomplish? What are my goals?

3. What are the skills I need to accomplish my goals?

4. How will I know I've reached my goals? What is my time frame for doing this?

5. Who or what can support me in reaching my goals?

6. What are the next goals I will develop or specific actions I will take?

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER?

The teacher, or other committed adult partner acts as a guide for the student through the evaluative and goal setting processes. The adult partner is there to remind the student that:

- the purpose of the dialogue is to begin a process of self-discovery,
- there are no right or wrong answers,
- each response is a clue to a strategy for success,
- there is someone there who can assist the student in setting and achieving goals through committed action.

HOW DOES IT WORK?

Using the INITIATIVE ACTION MODEL, the student and the adult partner meet in dialogue toward action. In each session the following format is used:

The adult partner commits to listen.

The student commits to act.

The adult guides the student to envision possibiities.

With guidance, feedback and necessary assistance, the student completes the tasks.

The adult and the student commit to meet again.

The tasks and assessment tools used in the sessions are designed to elicit information from the student as to his goals, aspirations and perceived or actual barriers to success.

The interaction between the student and adult partner provides a structure in which problem solving and support are the models.

Out of the sessions, the ACTION PLAN emerges as a natural result of seeing possibilities matched with the means to make them a reality.

Larry Lowrance
Sam Hite
Judy Daugherty
Southeast Missouri
State University
Cape Girardeau, Missouri

Proposal for Paper Presentation

Title: Making Transition Work: Two Effective Rural Programs

Purpose: The purpose of the paper is to present two related models which have been successful in facilitating persons who experience handicapping conditions entering nonsubsidized competitive employment.

Objectives:

1. Persons attending the presentation will become familiar with the models used in Project CAPE and Project HIRE in moving adolescents and adults with handicaps into the mainstream of the work force throughout rural Southeast Missouri.
2. Persons attending the presentation will become familiar with the interagency cooperation and creative funding of Projects CAPE and HIRE.
3. Persons attending the presentation will become familiar with the assessments used, skills trained, methods deemed successful, pitfalls faced, and the successes in overcoming problems in these two programs.

Rural focus: These two programs have served clients aged 14-65 throughout Southeast Missouri over a 21 county area whose population is less than 400,000 people and with the largest city being 35,000 people.

Practical Implications: This paper shows ways of preparing funding to implement vocational and social training programs that teach competitive employment skills, both generic job search and work skills. Also presented will be the skill sequences proven to be useful, the assessment of these skills, and the techniques used in the implementation of Project CAPE and HIRE. The training of job coaches, job development, and placement will be addressed. Data obtained in three years of implementation will be shared.

Theme Area(s): It is proposed that this paper be included in the conference as Preparing for Independence: Successful transition strategies. It could also be included in Productive Partnerships: funding and resources or State and Local Agency Intercollaboration.

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Appalachia Ed. Lab, Inc.
Charleston, West Virginia

BEYOND THE IEP: SEEKING PARENT INPUT FOR SPECIAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Objectives

Participants will...

1. learn about the characteristics of the needs assessment model.
2. apply the model in a hypothetical setting.
3. consider ways in which the results can be used to help shape program development.
4. consider features of the model that allow it to be adapted for a variety of applications.

Session Outline

I. Countering the parent-as-adversary role (2 min.)

   A. Parents in US education (outsiders, intimidated)

   B. Parents in special ed. (big involvement, often adversarial)

   C. Characteristics of parents who go to due process

      1. interested in program development in general
      2. concerned with welfare of other children like theirs
      3. better educated, more intact than other parents
      4. NEED: productive alternatives for involvement

II. Characteristics of needs assessment model (12 min.)

   A. Theoretical background

      1. real and ideal worlds
      2. needs represent a shortfall
      3. "needs" as perceptions

B. Statement of needs

1. format of need statement (L,T,WI,WIP)

2. WI ==> WIP in tight language

3. Interrelatedness of 3 parts

C. Organizing the Meeting

1. 30 participants

a. in this case, parents of special ed kids

b. Good target audiences

(1) parents of LD students

(2) parents of gifted students

(3) parents of TMI students

(4) mix of above (good education for parents)

2. 6 activities

a. evening overview
(large group) 30 min.

b. need statement training
(large group) 30 min.

c. need statement writing
(small group) 40 min.

d. clarifying (editing) statements
(small group) 20 min.

e. eating
(large group) 45 min.

f. need statement rating
(large group) 30 min.

3. 75 need statements from 4 small groups

D. Features of process used in meeting

1. **standardized manual for on-spot training**
    - **a. training routines**
    - **b. accompanies all 4 activities**
    - **c. copy for each participant**

2. **standardized format for need statements**

3. **small group interaction**

4. **role definition**

5. **appropriate technology (will consider at end if time)**

E. Open-endedness of process

1. **only one question**

2. **non-judgmental brain-storming rules**

3. **accommodates any mix of participants**

III. Applying the model in a hypothetical setting (20 min.)

A. Major question: what are the most important needs of special education in rural districts?

B. Demonstration

C. Alternative questions (examples):

ask of parents, "What are the greatest needs of...

1. **... of the LD program at Little Creek school?"**

2. **... of parents of SPMI students in this county?"**

3. **... of the gifted program in this district?"**

IV. Ways to use results to shape program development (3 min.)

A. Match your development agenda to perceived needs of parents (underwrites success)

B. Understand where parents need to be better informed

C. Identify new goals

E. Evaluate progress toward old goals

V. Developing Community Needs Assessment Reports (5 min.)

A. compute means

B. rank by means

C. regard all statements in top quartile (15-20) as equally important

D. Analysis of results

1. verbal-qualitative

2. numerical-quantitative

3. sample report

VI. Technology (if time) (3 min.)

A. micro or laptop (IBM compatible or Apple IIe, IIGS)

B. plasma display (use w/OHP)

C. database software (dBase III+ or AppleWorks)

D. statistics software (Statpac or SPSS -- need IBM HD)

E. Alternatives for smooth meeting

(1) typewriter, xerox machine w/ enlargement & transparency capability, OHP

VII. Q & A (5 min.)

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PREPARING RURAL EARLY CHILDHOOD SPECIAL EDUCATORS

The State of Vermont, covering 9,603 square miles with a population of about 560,000, is typical of rural America. Its mountains, rivers and valleys provide an enviable picture of beauty. Yet those mountains, rivers and valleys cause difficulties to Vermonters who need to travel, particularly during Vermont's well-known winters.

Vermont is the most rural of the fifty states, according to the 1980 United States census. 66% of Vermonters are living in towns with populations fewer than 2,500. This population distribution aggravates rural population problems often identified. Other problems include family isolation, lack of public transportion and low family incomes. In small schools it is typical for handicapping conditions to be low incidence. Available services are often 100 - 200 miles away. Economic factors such as relatively low state support for public education (less than 35%) contribute to the problem of providing appropriate services to children and families in rural Vermont.

Vermont has many regions in which families are isolated from health services, cultural centers, institutions of higher education, and sometimes even from basic education programs and services. Salaries that are not attractive and intense winters in relatively isolated regions are reasons often cited when teaching candidates are interviewed and decide not to accept a rural job offer. Special education positions in some areas may remain unfilled for years. In some cases, certification waivers have had to be granted year after year in order to fill those vacancies.

CURRENT SERVICES AND TRAINING NEEDS

Vermont's Department of Education provides early intervention to preschool children with handicapping conditions through Essential Early Education (EEE) programs. Essential Early Education is special education for handicapped children prior to legal school age. Essential Early Education programs are not now available to all eligible children in Vermont. Of 59 supervisory union school districts, only 36 have local EEE programs. An additional 17 have limited access to regional programs. Six have no services for their preschool populations. Approximately 55% of the eligible birth to 5 age group, nearly 700 children, do not receive special education services.

Vermont is one of the approximately 35 states in the nation which currently has regulations for certifying professionals who work with young children (birth through eight years of age) with handicaps, and their families. According to current certification regulations, professionals who provide special education services to young children with handicaps in Vermont's Essential Early Education programs must be certified as "Teacher of the Handicapped" with an endorsement in "Essential Early Education" from the Vermont State Department of Education.

There is currently no distinction in certification between professionals who work with preschool-aged children and "early interventionists" (i.e. professionals who work with children in the birth to three age range). However, educators in Vermont, as in other states, have begun to differentiate the range of roles and responsibilities required by "early interventionists" from professionals who provide services to older special needs populations (i.e., three to eight) and their families.

There are currently fifty-four Essential Early Educators employed in Vermont. Historically, nearly half leave their jobs in the first two years. Twelve new EEE teachers are needed to replace those who leave the teaching field, assuming no change in the numbers of programs. Federal legislation (PL 99-457) will encourage states to provide Early Childhood Special Education services to all eligible children who are 3 - 5 by 1990. The resulting need is critical - in Vermont 60 new teachers will be needed to deliver those newly-expanded services.

Teacher preparation programs in early childhood special education in Vermont are few (3). Of those, only Vermont College of Norwich University offers undergraduate preparation. Altogether only 6 - 10 new early childhood special educators are graduating each year, and of those most leave Vermont for other states. In Vermont, there is no teacher preparation program in ECSE serving the state's eastern border.

PROGRAM BACKGROUND

The goal of the Early Childhood Special Education Program (ECSE) at Vermont College of Norwich University is to provide an intensive competency-based program for preparing new early childhood special education teachers. The model offers a comprehensive curriculum, combining coursework and practical activities that build on the Child Study two-year and Early Childhood Education four-year degree options. The program in

Early Childhood Special Education at Vermont College was developed with the support of Norwich University and with the supplementary provision of four years of federal personnel preparation grant assistance.

The ECSE curriculum relates integrally to the educational needs of pre-schoolers with handicapping conditions. The process of curriculum development involved consultation with special educators in Vermont and the Special Education Unit of the Vermont Department of Education. Modifications in curriculum content were made in consultation with the Vermont College Early Childhood Program's Special Education Advisory Committee. This Committee included special educators, students, State Department of Education staff, therapists, University faculty, and parents.

The conclusion of this process of curriculum development revealed that professionals providing services to young children with handicaps and their families must fulfill a number of different roles. A primary task of such professionals is to participate in identifying and assessing children. They must participate as team members in planning, writing, and implementing individualized education programs. Such professionals provide direct instruction and/or consult with other professionals who provide direct services to children (e.g. child care providers, related service professionals) and their families. They may also be called upon to teach parents and other personnel who provide services to children. In addition, they must plan individualized family involvement activities related to child and family needs, and coordinate transition activities with the family and elementary educators.

In order to teach candidates the numerous skills needed to provide such varied and comprehensive services to young children and their families, and to meet state and local training needs, the Vermont College Early Childhood Special Education Program is competency based and interdisciplinary. Training is accomplished through a combination of academic coursework and extensive field-based experiences, including student teaching.

PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY

Program content reflects the philosophical viewpoint that a solid foundation of knowledge of normal child development precedes the study of atypical development. All students in the Early Childhood Programs develop a strong basis in studies of normal child development and curriculum principles and practices. Coursework follows a logical progression from studies of normal children to study of and work with children with a wide range of special needs. Study of atypical development begins the first year and intensifies with each successive year. The program's philosophy also reflects a fundamental belief that young children with handicapping conditions benefit most from an educational experience that is integrated into normal routines as much as possible.

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

Competency-based Training

The Vermont College ECSE curriculum is competency based, requiring the accomplishment of selected objectives and demonstration of the abilities necessary to perform those objectives. The competencies are addressed in multiple courses, assuring a pyramid and spiral effect in the attainment of overall competency in the field of Early Childhood Special Education. Courses have been tested and revised over several years to ensure that each competency is adequately addressed.

The competencies to be acquired and demonstrated by each student were derived from several sources, including 1) Vermont State Teacher Certification regulations , 2) National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification standards, and 3) program specific competencies developed by project staff in concert with the Special Education Advisory Committee. The attainment of competencies is evaluated through written examinations, research papers, field-based experiences, and faculty observations. As courses are completed, a Competency Attainment Profile is used to determine which competencies were addressed and which were mastered. The student, advisor, and course instructor each participate in this assessment.

Interdisciplinary Focus

The training program relects an interdisciplinary focus in the planning and development of activities, in the faculty providing coursework, and in curriculum content. The faculty and other invited speakers represent a wide range of disciplines, including early childhood educators, special educators, occupational and physical therapists, parents, speech/language pathologists, state department administrators, family therapists, and child care providers.

Academic Coursework

The ECSE degree program includes courses in both early childhood and early childhood special education. Courses include Assessment and Educational Planning in ECSE settings, Physical and Developmental Characteristics of the Special Needs Child, Strategies for Integration, Speech and Language Acquisition and Atypical Development. Students in a Critical Issues course learn methods of legislative planning in special education and strategies to impact legislative action by following special education legislation through the Vermont House. Students in Consultation and Communication with Parents and Other Professionals learn strategies for building early intervention programs which actively integrate families.

Student Teaching/Practicum Experiences

As a part of all academic coursework, students have opportunities to practice intervention techniques learned in the classroom. Practicum experiences range from several hours to a full semester. The Early Childhood Programs have active standing agreements with observation/practicum/student teaching sites throughout Vermont. Students have experience beginning in their second year working in agencies and programs representing a range of service delivery models including home-based, center-based, combination home and center-based, and outreach programs to young children and their families.

Each student in the Early Childhood Special Education Program enrolls in two semester-long three credit Special Needs Practica, one of which is center-based and the other home-based. The Special Needs Practica take place during the second semester of the junior year and first semester of the senior year. An associated practicum seminar is held weekly in which issues relevant to the field placement are discussed. The first week of practicum is devoted to general orientation, including visits to practicum sites, development of individual practicum contracts, and reviews of seminar topics.

All students complete a student teaching experience during their final semester in the program. The student teaching experience consists of fifteen weeks of teaching at a site chosen for its ability to provide innovative and high-quality services.

DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL SATELLITE PROJECT

Traditionally, it has been difficult to attract education personnel to work in remote, rural areas of Vermont. Candidates give a variety of reasons for turning down positions in more remote areas of the state, including below average salaries, lack of opportunities to participate in cultural activities, lack of services, and intense winters. Turnover is also high in these areas. Teachers often stay only for the period of time it takes for positions to open in the more populous and desirable regions of the state.

Vermont College's solution to identified training needs, personnel shortages and high turnover in these more rural areas has been to recruit and train local personnel; individuals who are "rooted" in the rural areas, and who have already made these remote areas their home. An outreach component of the Early Childhood Special Education Program is being developed with the assistance of a U.S. Department of Education grant allowing local students to be recruited and trained close to their homes.

The focus of the Rural Satellite project is on delivery of a specialized educational program to a population of students who otherwise would be unable to access its content. Two rural sites will be established, serving students in the following categories:

1. teachers seeking new endorsement as Essential Early Educators;
2. individuals with at least a bachelors degree seeking first-time certification as Teacher of the Handicapped: Essential Early Education;
3. paraprofessionals working toward a bachelors degree in early childhood special education;
4. others, including parents, volunteers, and professionals in related fields, seeking skills in working with young children with handicaps.

The first site for the Rural Satellite Project is in southeastern Vermont, where Vermont College has in place a site for educating adults in Alternative Education undergraduate and graduate level programs through a low-density residential program. Other University programs are planning to offer courses at the Putney site in the near future as well, assuring mutual support and cost-effective delivery of services.

Students are being provided incentives to participate in the project with the availability of tuition stipends. These stipends are awarded to students who have made the commitment to work for EEE certification and/or a bachelors degree in Early Childhood Special Education, and have developed a specific timeline for taking the necessary courses to achieve their goal. Stipends are valuable tools for attracting rural students into educational programs because they partially offset the expense of the program.

Students access the program through project personnel, including the Rural Satellite Coordinator (RSC). The RSC serves as advisor to the students, developing individual educational programs to assure that each student's educational plan is based on past experience, educational background and future plans. The RSC assists each student in coordinating certification efforts with the Vermont State Department of Education's Certification Office.

The RSC is responsible for identifying field faculty at each rural site. Consistent with the model on the Montpelier campus, practicing professionals who have specialized training in their respective fields are hired as adjunct faculty. Field faculty are professionals living and working in the region of the satellite program. They assist students to become familiar with community resources that enable parents and families to meet the needs of their young child with handicapping conditions.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Following its first semester in southeastern Vermont in Spring, 1988, the Rural Satellite Project has identified eleven students who will work toward the completion of a degree or certification in early childhood special education. In addition, the development of a second rural satellite site is a major aspect of the current planning efforts. Students and faculty in the first site, in Putney, have been helpful in pinpointing ways to improve the delivery of services. Intensive collaborative efforts are being made by the Continuing Education Division and its University committee to assure that full services are available to students seeking an Early Childhood Special Education program in rural sites.

At the State Department level current certification regulations in Vermont for early childhood special educators are being examined by participants of the Vermont Essential Early Education Task Force. The Task Force is developing recommendations which may include the creation of new regulations for professionals who wish to work in Vermont's "birth to three" programs. The Vermont College Early Childhood Special Education Program is considering whether and how to differentiate its degree program and curriculum offerings for personnel preparing to work with very young infants and toddlers, should state certification regulations change.

Vern Barkell, Director
Yellowstone-West/Carbon County
Special Services Cooperative
410 Colorado Avenue - Room 106
Laurel, MT 59044

R.I.D.E. (RESPONDING TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATION)

This process was developed by the Great Falls Public Schools, Great Falls, Montana. It is designed to provide regular education teachers with help in dealing with student learning problems, both academic and behavioral, that are found in the regular classroom.

Studies have shown that a large number of referrals to Special Education are false referrals. That is, after extensive evaluations, many students simply do not qualify for Special Education services. This creates two concerns. The first concern is that a great deal of time on the part of the Special Education staff in local districts and cooperatives is used evaluating students that are eventually determined not to qualify for services. This takes away from the time available to evaluate and instruct those students who are truly handicapped. The lag time between referral and placement of students qualifying for services is often increased because the number of referrals is high.

The second concern is that often, those students who are determined not to qualify for services after extensive evaluation, are still in the regular classroom exhibiting the same inappropriate social and academic behaviors that led to a referral to Special Education in the first place.

Project R.I.D.E. is designed to deal with those concerns. The premise of the Project is that regular education teachers, when given sufficient support, can effectively deal with many of the problems encountered in their classrooms.

Project R.I.D.E. is composed of two parts. The first part utilizes a bank of computer disks and video tapes. In Great Falls, a survey among regular classroom teachers was made to determine in priority order the twenty most significant behavioral and academic problems encountered in regular classrooms. The school district then contracted with two university professors to investigate applicable Best Practices research found in educational journals. Educational literature contains excellent, proven intervention tactics. However, these journals are often so technical that the average teacher would have neither the time, nor the patience to dig through the articles to get help with specific problems.

These professors were told to look through all the available literature and come up with at least five proven teaching tactics to deal with each of the twenty problems listed on the survey. Once the tactics were located, these individuals set out to eliminate all the technical jargon and summarize the tactics in 300 to 400 words. Once this phase was completed, the individuals working on this project had all the tactics in their new, rewritten, simplified form, put on computer disk. The computer program designed for this was made extremely "user friendly." Should a teacher experiencing a specific problem with one or more students need to access the computer program, it is very easy to do. By looking through the menu, the teacher can determine what tactics are available for a particular problem and read about each of them on the monitor. If the tactics look appropriate, she can print them out and have a hard copy to look over as time allows.

Each tactic follows the same format. A summary statement about the tactic is given, and a description of the target population is provided. Next, implementation procedures are discussed, showing the teacher, step by step, how to use the techniques in the classroom. Next, the reader is told how to modify the tactic for older or younger students. Also provided is the name of the journal from which the tactic was taken should the teacher want to review the original study.

To complement this tool, the district decided to develop a video tape bank which models some of the tactics presented on the computer. The tactics that were modeled were those that teachers might have the most trouble understanding and following if they had only the computer print-out to follow.

Follow-up studies of this portion of the program have shown that many of the academic and behavioral problems, which in the past would have been referred for Special Education evaluation were successfully handled in the classroom. At this point, classroom teachers totally control the process. No other individuals need be involved.

Should the the teacher continue to experience a problem even after using the computer bank and video tapes, the next step in Project R.I.D.E. would be used. This involves the classroom teacher making a referral to the School Wide Assistance Team (S.W.A.T.).

A. The premise of the S.W.A.T. team is as follows:

  1. Classrooms are full of atypical kids,

  2. We can all use additional ideas and resources,

  3. None of us have all the answers all of the time,

  4. Some kids don't qualify for Special Education, but still need help,

  5. Mainstreamed students spend time in regular classrooms, and

  6. Special Education teachers also need support with full-time handicapped students.

S.W.A.T. teams are made up of several regular education teachers who work in the building. These individuals are normally chosen through an informal election on the part of the entire staff. No teacher is forced to participate, but is encouraged to do so by the building administrator through private discussion. S.W.A.T. team members meet on a consultant basis, once or twice per month, in most instances. Membership rotates intermittently, but a term on the S.W.A.T Team should last at least six months.

The referring teacher comes to the Team with the particular problem well in mind. She describes what has already been tried. At that point a "brain storming" session takes place, in which all members of the Team are free to provide suggestions on how the specific problem might be handled. A S.W.A.T. recorder writes down all the suggestions that are made during this session. When the "brain storm" session ends, the suggestions are reviewed and the referring teacher is free to accept none, some, or all of the ideas presented. At this point, the teacher decides how long she wants to try the new tactics in the classroom. Usually a time frame of two weeks is minimal to see if the tactics are going to work.

The idea behind the S.W.A.T. process is that there is a wealth of good teaching and management techniques available in any school building. This process is designed to help draw those ideas out in a systematic way. In a study of fifteen schools in three states, this process, also known as T.A.T. (Teacher Assistant Teams); was found to eliminate all false referrals to Special Education, during the time of the study.

In the first year of using this process in the Great Falls Public Schools, the following data resulted:

Of the 68 behaviors, 56 (82%) were successfully resolved by classroom teachers using R.I.D.E. tactics. Of the remaining 12 problems, 8 (12%) were successfully resolved at the building level by the teacher with the aide of the School Wide Assistance Team. The remaining 4 behaviors (6%) were referred to Special Education.

Even though this project was developed in a large school district in Montana, the system can be very beneficial in smaller rural school systems such as those that comprise the Yellowstone-West/Carbon County Special Services Cooperative.

It should be noted that while this process was developed to assist regular education teachers, deal with their atypical students, it has also been of substantial help to Special Education Teachers who are experiencing specific problems in their classes.

In no way is the program to be represented to regular education teachers as a "road block" to getting services from Special Education. It is designed to provide assistance to teachers that have not been readily available in the past.

Inservice time normally consists of one, day long workshop where the principles of the program are laid out. It may also require some follow up with administrator and building staff to make sure the process is being carried out correctly.

Administrative support is essential to the success of R.I.D.E. The administrator must provide time for the School Wide Assistance Team to meet, and she should consider the function of the S.W.A.T. Team to be as important as any other duty shared by building teachers. A supportive administrator will encourage referrals to S.W.A.T. Teams and be available to lend her expertize when requested.

Administrators should, however, be cautious not to place themselves into to a leadership role in actual S.W.A.T. meetings. Previous experience has shown that teaching staff are often hesitant to offer suggestions for fear that those suggestions may sound too odd or out of place to the administrator. Administrators as well as Special Education personnel, (School Psychologists, Resource Teachers, Consultants) can and should be prepared to offer help to the S.W.A.T. personnel for particularly difficult problems, when they are requested.

In conclusion:

In rural areas especially, there are often few resources that regular education teachers can call upon for help. The videos and computer bank, as well as the S.W.A.T. process, help to fill the gap often found in these schools.

Further information on Project R.I.D.E. can be obtained by contacting:

Dr. Ray Beck
Director of Special Education
Skyline Center
3300 Third Street North East
Great Falls, MT 59403

Donald Kairott
California Disabilities
Awareness Program
Sacramento, California

"California Disabilities Awareness Program: Training and Technology for Rural Areas"

The purpose of this presentation is to provide information about the California Disabilities Awareness Program, and to highlight training availability through satellite teleconferencing (to occur in March and April, 1988).

Background Information:

Five districts in California have developed curricula for disabilities awareness as per California legislative mandate AB2841 (Felando). The purpose of the curricula is to provide an awareness for students without disabilities about the special problems encountered by individuals with exceptional needs, and how IWENS overcome these problems. The goals of the project are to:

a. impact knowledge about individuals with exceptional needs.
b. break down barriers that create isolation (fear, misunderstanding, lack of shared experiences).
c. increase awareness of physical barriers (architectural, transportation).
d. increase peer status and self-esteem of disabled students.

Included in program development was the requirement to include individuals with handicaps in the presentations and training. One project has hired a person with a disability as part of its permanent staff.

Rural Focus:

One way that participants from rural areas can access training in project materials is through satellite teleconferencing. Participants will be made aware of the nearest "downlink" site, should they desire the training sequence. The project has access to over 100 sites. Many of these sites are located in rural areas in California. Additionally, we are determining if satellite capability extends beyond California. If that is the case, we will provide information to conference participants from other states on how to access the training.

In addition to teleconferencing, each project site has developed a video overview of their respective program. Some sites have developed additional training materials on video. These materials can be made available (on a cost recovery basis) to conference participants. It is important to note that the training materials to be highlighted over satellite were developed by Chico Unified School District (a rural area), thus, the training that participants could access will have a rural context.

Program Content:

The following pages describe each of the five projects which comprise the program. Project coordinators may be contacted directly for further information or inquiry may be made to:

Donald Kairott, Dissemination Coordinator
California Disabilities Awareness Program
650 University Avenue, Room 201
Sacramento, CA 95825 (916) 921-0510

PROJECT ADEPT

Overview

Project ADEPT is designed to facilitate the interaction of regular education students with disabled students on the school site. The program is structured so that students acquire new knowledge about the disabled and follow it up with interaction with both disabled community members and their handicapped peers. This direct interaction helps to break down negative attitudes toward the disabled and allows students to see the many abilities which the disabled possess.

Contents

The ADEPT Cirriculum is intended for students in third through sixth grade. Four disability units are presented: Visually Impaired, Hearing Impaired, Orthopedically Impaired and Developmentally Disabled. Classroom teachers teach these thirty minute lessons to the students with at least two lessons in each unit. A variety of media materials and simulation activities are used to present this new information on disabilities. This new information is reinforced through the use of learning center activities and computer assisted writing activities provided with the curriculum. Videotapes developed as both an introduction to the program and a teaching tool for the lessons are also provided. In addition to the Teacher's Manual and the Computer Assisted Writing Manual, a Peer Tutoring Manual is available to aid teachers and other distrcit personnel in the development of a peer tutoring program on the school site between regular education students and the severely handicapped.

Services

Project ADEPT Staff are available to offer school districts a variety of services. An Overview of the program can be presented to interested district personnel. This one hour presentation at your site will highlight the program components and share the ADEPT videotape. Inservice training will be provided within the South Bay Union School Distrcit. This training is approximately six hours in length and is designed for districts prepared to implement ADEPT in their schools. A Demonstration and Training Site is available in the South Bay Union School District so that interested personnel can see the program at work in the classroom. Participants in the training sessions will have an opportunity to meet with teachers using the curriculum.

For additional information contact Susan Schmidt, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, South Bay Union School District, 601 Elm Avenue, Imperial Beach, California, 92032, (619) 575-5944

IN A DIFFERENT WAY

Description

"In a Different Way" project emphasizes ADAPTATION. Teachers and students (K-8) learn that a person with a disability has to do things "in a different way", emphasizing the "do". We teach empathy, not pity. Students learn to become advocates for people with disabilities by helping to improve the attitudes of others.

Program

Curriculum and Teacher Training - The program trains teachers in 3 day workshops covering vision and hearing impairment, physical disability, learning handicaps and mental retardation. Lessons are designed to integrate into Health Science and Social Science for K-6 and English for grades 7 and 8. The curriculum consists of the foregoing lessons plus a Teachers' Guide. In addition, seminars are presented by student teachers at California State University, Chico as part of their mainstreaming requirement.

Teacher Support - This project functions as a resource center for teachers to request media, reading material, visual aids and adaptive aids. The project staff arranges for class presentations by community members who are disabled. These individuals function as role models for students, answering questions and providing a positive direct experience with the disabled, eliminating fear and barriers of misunderstanding.

Mainstreaming Intervention - Besides general awareness training, project staff provide positive intervention in situations where special needs students are encountering failure in social integration. Solutions vary from one-time class discussions explaining a specific student's needs to indepth coursework using the "In A Different Way" curriculum. Changing negative patterns of interaction may also require the organization of peer support groups to facilitate improvement of social integration.

For additional information contact Barbara Conklin, Coordinator, Special Education, Chico Unified School District, 1163 East Seventh St., Chico, California 95926, (916) 891-3000.

SPEAKING FROM EXPERIENCE

OVERVIEW AND PHILOSOPHY:

The Speaking From Experience program is designed to help typical students better understand the needs and abilities of their handicapped peers. To accomplish this goal the program is structured so that interaction takes place between typical students, handicapped adults and handicapped young people from the community. The direct interaction between able-bodied individuals with handicapps helps to break down the stereotyped views often held of individuals with handicapping conditions. At times handicapped people are seen as being limited in their abilities and interests. The Speaking From Experience program allows typical students the opportunity to experience for themselves the ways in which individuals with handicapping conditions adapt to their surroundings and the wide variety of interests and abilities that these people possess.

PROGRAM CONTENT

The curriculum for the Speaking From Experience program is divided into three basic age groups: Primary, Elementary, and Secondary.

The Primary curriculum is based on the concept that everyone differs in some way. One of the ways in which a person might be different is how he or she performs daily living tasks, e.g. walking, talking, eating, thinking, etc. Individuals who are handicapped must perform all of these activities and many more. In some cases they perform these tasks in different way than people who are non-handicapped.

The Elementary curriculum is composed of seven lessons. The major concept introduced at this level involves "adaptability". Everyone must learn to adapt to changing conditions. People who are handicapped must learn how to adapt their particular handicapping condition to their own unique surroundings. Students have the opportunity to interact personally with individuals who are handicapped as well as observe other peers via video tape who have a variety of handicapping conditions.

The focus of the Secondary curriculum is on goal setting and goal attainment. The basic concepts of goal attainment are presented in four lessons. Three video tapes are used to show how handicapped students use a four step process to achieve their own personal goals. Each of the typical students is asked to (1) identify a personal goal; (2) gather information about this goal; (3) identify and solicit support to achieve this goal; and (4) evaluate and estimate the probability of achieving the goal. This curriculum is unique in that handicapped students serve as models for typical students via three specially produced video tapes.

For additional information contact Dr. Roger McGookin, Director, Speaking From Experience, Fountain Valley School District, 17210 Oak Street, Fountain Valley, California 92708.

Hand in Hand is a comprehensive approach designed to foster disability awareness, reduce stereotypes and support integration of disabled students.

The various components of this project have been carefully chosen to provide information about disability; to expose individuals to equipment used by the disabled; to simulate disability; and to provide the opportunity to interact and socialize with both disabled children and adults.

The program is designed to provide direct training to regular education students and teachers using the following modalities and activities.

A K-8 curriculum guide is available utilizing the clinical teaching format. Lessons involve a variety of activities such as reading, games, music, simulation activities, writing, films and art to generate discussion and understanding about persons with disabilities and to help students appreciate the uniqueness of all people.

Using 11-13 30-minute lessons, the following disabilities are covered:

Visual disabilities	K-8
Hearing disabilities	K-8
Physical disabilities	K-8
Mental retardation	6-8
Learning disabilities	6-8

Interaction and socialization is a critical component of this project because direct contact with disabled people is the most effective tool in dispelling the myths surrounding disability. The study of each disability culminates with a guest speaker who has effectively and successfully dispelled many of the myths surrounding that disability.

A 10-minute video giving an overview of the program goals has been developed to introduce teachers and parents to Hand in Hand. A 10-hour inservice format is available, including a comprehensive teacher inservice guide.

Jeanette Richardson
Patty Wills
SAN JUAN UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
Carmichael, California

916-971-7643

2/6/86
Rev. 1/5/87

Project
L.E.A.D.

Leaders in
Enhancing
Awareness of
Disabilities

PROJECT LEAD

LEADERS IN ENHANCING AWARENESS OF DISABILITIES

OVERVIEW

The purpose of Project LEAD is to foster awareness and understanding of individual differences utilizing a succinct 10-week program. Since 1980 it has earned administrative, teacher and student support for being an innovative program that gets both the school and the community involved.

The project has four components:

1. **An orientation day where the elementary staff is introduced to all aspects of the project.**
2. **An awareness day where adults with disabilities share their real life experiences with the students.**
3. **A peer facilitator component where 4th, 5th and 6th grade students are trained to conduct simulations of disabilities in all classrooms throughout the school.**
4. **Teacher use of prepared curriculum associated with the project.**

Project LEAD is a two-day trainer of trainers model that develops trainee competencies and prepares trainers for implementation of the project. With the use of a training manual strategies for implementation are thoroughly covered.

Once you embark on the Project LEAD journey you and your staff will enter into some very challenging subject areas--areas where you may not have all the answers. You will investigate and discover new dimensions inside yourself as you provide the foundations for students to explore new horizons in comprehending individual differences and handicapping conditions.

Lou Denti, Coordinator
Riverside County Office of Education
P. O. Box 868, Riverside, CA 92502
(714) 788-6641

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Dale S. Holmes, Superintendent

TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

8:30 AM - NOON

Joseph Roberts
San Jose State University
San Jose, California

Lorentina Carroll
Lodi Unified Schools
Lodi, California

ABSTRACT

Low self-esteem is cited as one major reason that At-Risk teenagers drop out of school. A major block in learning for handicapped students is often their low self esteem. Overcoming this negative self-concept is a major problem for teachers at all levels --kindergarten through college.

Teachers want to help these students with low self-esteem, but they don't know what strategies and techniques to use. This workshop will focus on classroom strategies that work with a minimum of theory.

Research indicates that one's self-concept affects school achievement, and that school achievement affects self-esteem. If we can improve achievement, self-esteem will improve, and if we improve self-esteem we will also improve school achievement.

Most writers who have written about self-esteem have identified the following:

1. Belonging - We all want to belong, to be liked. To be cared for and accepted as a member of a group. We need to believe that we are part of a group of individuals that values us for who we are. Often handicapped children feel they don't belong; they are alienated, alone. Strategies have been developed that deal with uniqueness, but also allow children to see they are not alone, but part of a segment of humanity, and humanity itself.

2. Feeling Competent - Handicapped children are often reminded of what they can't do, and what they can't do well. We all need to feel competent. Teachers must help handicapped students focus on areas of competency that they may take for granted, and do not appreciate. Students must focus on what they already can do well, have done well, and are doing well right now. Once that is established, then, and only then, are they willing to take risks in new areas where they would like to become competent.

3. Feeling Worthwhile - Handicapped children need to feel that they are loved, not for what they do, but just because they are. They need to feel that they are O.K. They need to know that their feelings are O.K. --whether they're good or bad feelings. They are important. They are special. They are unique.

This workshop will provide participants with the opportunity to learn strategies that they can use in their classrooms.

Sixth, the DD person is a poor incidental learner;

Seventh, learned behaviors must be maintained and generalized in real environments if the behaviors are going to be available to the DD person.

Eighth, many developmentally delayed children present medical and perceptual problems which affect both learning and training.

These characteristics demand efficient, effective training of a particular skill to be done in a particular place, by a particular person, in a particular way, over time. I suggest that nonhandicapped children make sense out of their real, home environment and take this knowledge with them to school, or school will be an ineffectual learning environment. Children from poor home environments substantiate this part. Too often the DD child has not interpreted his home environment before he goes to school. Then the DD child will spend years in educational programs, in absentia of real life situations, trying to learn how to function acceptably in a wide variety of heterogeneous non-school environments.

Considering the limitations of the DD learner, we can describe the parameters of developing an individual education program (IEP). The DD child should be trained in skills that have broad use across many situations and problems. The DD child should be trained in his natural environment because of the problem of synthesis, maintenance and generalization of skills. The skills trained should have intrinsic value to the DD child and be selected because they work for him/her. Because of the time and redundancy needed to learn a skill, training should start early in the DD child's life and be done by a person who can do the task time and time again. For these reasons, we have chosen to train DD children via their parents in their natural environments.

One of the specific mandated-related services required by P.L. 94-142 is parent training and counseling. The linkages between the special education classroom and the child's home development can impact on the ability of each setting to enhance the child's development. Fredricks, Baldwin, and Grove (1974) have demonstrated that a systematic program by the parent in conjunction with a school program will almost double the rate of acquisition of a particular skill. However, questionnaires have revealed educators felt the handicapped child's parents did not possess the expertise necessary to actively participate in their child's education. Teachers indicated they thought parents could not effectively plan for or aid in their child's education because some parents functioned too low intellectually, others did not care, and most held unrealistic expectations, or denying their child's problems. Switzer (1985) proposed that if parents were given the information they needed to understand their child's disability, the parent could accept and work with their child's problems. Fulmer, Cohen and Monaco (1985) determined the person inform-

Russell E. Hedge &
Willard L. Johnson
ICEIP Program, KUAF

Training Parents of Developmentally Delayed Children in Rural Areas

Physical and behavioral development of normal infants is very rapid during the first three years of life. During this period, normal infants progress from neurologically immature organisms with primarily reflexive behaviors to almost neurologically mature children who are able to walk, run, perform basic cognitive tasks, and communicate with others verbally in the language of their community.

Precisely how this development is affected has been a subject of controversy over the past years. Some hypothesize that there are critical periods during which inadequate experience can lead to permanent disabilities. Others hypothesize that almost any single event can be overcome with appropriate later experiences (Yarrow, Rubenstein & Pedersen, 1975).

Recently, research suggests that the effects of events and experiences are cumulative (Nielsen, Collins, Meisel, Lowry, Engh & Johnson, 1975). No single adverse environmental condition or experience leads to deficiency; rather, the cumulative effects of numerous adverse conditions do. There is also the implication that early experiences may be more important to some groups of children than others. For example, it may be more important for neurologically damaged infants to receive optimal levels of experience than infants without such damage.

If the teachers and therapists of developmentally delayed (DD) children were to describe the learning characteristics of the children we work with, we would probably agree on many of the following.

First, DD children would acquire fewer skills;

Second, the skills learned would be less complex than those acquired by nonhandicapped persons;

Third, the number of trials and the amount of time required to reach a functional performance level for a skill are much greater;

Fourth, the DD child tends to forget what he/she has learned;

Fifth, the DD child has problems synthesizing what he has learned to another setting or problem;

ing the handicapped child's parents of the child's problems must "fit" the information to the particular family's structures and habitual functioning for the family to accept and participate in the child's training. Beckman (1985) found both parents and professionals consistent in their estimations of a child's abilities when given similar strategies for assessing the child. In addition, neither the parent nor the professional over-estimated the child's ability. Witt, Miller, McIntyre and Smith (1984) indicated the parents were satisfied with their child's IEP staffing if they were directly involved in its planning and implementation. Cone, Delawyer and Wolfe (1985) indicated parent income and education were positively correlated to the amount of time a parent worked with a handicapped child in the home. Amerikaner and Omizo (1984) (using the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scales [FACES]) demonstrated that families of learning disabled or emotionally disabled children were significantly more "chaotic" and "disengaged" than families with normal children. But Blacher (1984a, 1984b) noted parents become emotionally organized and adjusted when they channeled their energies into solving the realistic problems of their handicapped child.

For the past 10 years, the Infant and Early Childhood Intervention Program (IECIP) of the Kansas University Affiliated Program (KUAP) at Parsons, Kansas, has dealt solely with the training of rural parents with developmentally delayed children. Information and training has been delivered to the only live-in consistent teacher the child will ever have--the parent--at a cost of $200 per child per year. The parent learned about their child's disability, what and how to train their child in the home and community, and to plan for their child's future. The result has been parents who knew what their child's problems were could work with the child and other similar developmentally disabled children, and could tell you what the child accomplished, learned, and needed to learn to be prepared to live independently.

de Villier's (1979) discussion of the crucial experiences and constraints of language acquisition focused on the importance of the child's parents as his tutors in his natural environment. For years, we have separated handicapped children from their parents and their homes to prepare them to live in "the natural environment." But characteristically, handicapped children find it hard to transfer or generalize an acquired skill from one environment to a different one (Brown, Nisbet, Ford, Sweet, Shiraga, York & Loomis, 1983). Ford and Mirenda (1984) suggested the right number and variety of stimuli in the natural environment covered and confused the relevant cues the handicapped child had been trained to attend to in his structured classroom setting. Donnellan, Mesaros and Anderson (1984-85) recommended that if we are to change the poor outcome for handicapped persons, we must move from the artificial nature of the setting, tasks, materials, teaching formats and curriculum content we now employ and learn to teach them in the natural environment. Halle (1982) demonstrated that if we were to succeed in teaching functional language to handicapped individuals, we must facilitate generalization to the natural environment where it is actually used.

The quality of the interaction between the infant and his/her caregiver is critical to infant early development (Kelly, 1981). In fact, Rosen-Morris and Sitkel (1981) stated, "The success of an educational program is ultimately tied to the teacher or parent's attitude toward the child." Brooks-Gunn and Lewis (1981) investigated what effects the various temperaments of cerebral palsied, Down syndrome, and mentally retarded infants, ages 3 months to 3 years, had on their parents. These children, like normal children, were individually unique in temperament and tended to change in behavior with change in age and maturity. The parents of these handicapped children tended to physically and verbally interact more with the children if they were less distractible, more persistent in attention, less intense in amplitude and length of response, and less active motorically. However, when maternal interaction was not responded to at the time mothers felt it was developmentally time for their child to respond (due to the child's delay in cognitive and language development), the mothers stopped interacting. As the child fell farther behind the norm, certain behaviors seen as appropriate in young infants, in all likelihood, became aversive to the child's tutor and the child was considered difficult. When parents and teachers of older handicapped children considered the child to be "difficult," they restricted their interaction to commands and directives. In turn, the child did not develop conceptually, and tended to become a greater problem to the adult. The more delayed the child appeared in development in regard to his chronological age, the less the parent interacted.

While nonhandicapped infants and their mothers seem compatible for developing the natural environment into a language training center, the handicapped child presents his/her mother with a distorted cue system that make it hard for her to teach, and them to learn language. Keogh and Reichle (1980) indicated that the handicapped child's environment must be modified if the basic concepts for communication are to be learned. Kelly (1981), Thoman, Becker and Freese (1976), Brooks-Gunn and Lewis (1981), Walker, Levine, and Grasse (1981) suggested the important features of maternal language that foster the development of linguistic skills in normal children are equally, if not more important, to the handicapped child. Research has begun to investigate how a handicapped child's behaviors reduce or eliminate the effectiveness of the child's natural tutor and environment for language. The results are techniques and procedures that allow the child's parents to teach them in their home and community.

The characteristics of children with various handicaps, the coping, interactive, re-adaptation of the mothers, and suggestions for appropriate training techniques were reviewed by Ludlow (1981). Ludlow, (1981), Walker, Levine and Grasse (1981), and Kelly (1981) indicated normal parents with handicapped children reverted to negative and controlling vocal and nonvocal expressions with their infants and young children, instead of the positive and concept-developing expressions they would use with normal children. Slater (1983) developed a linguistic training program for children of low IQ mothers in deprived conditions which gave these mothers the ability to employ abstract language patterns, emphasize conceptual relationships and encourage their children to solve problems. The program met with significant success. The program developed representative and abstract thinking ability in these children. Interestingly, the language behaviors of the low IQ parents that were replaced by the Slater program were negative, controlling vocal and nonvocal expressions--the expressive modes normal mothers of handicapped infants seem to develop. The program increased the rate of verbal interaction between low IQ mothers and their children. Warren and Warren (1983) found frequency of verbalization to be directly related to the rate of learning and generalization of language skills by handicapped children. Walker et al. (1981) indicated play situations provided more vocal exchange between mothers and handicapped children. In the play situation, the child chose the source of linguistic attention. Research has suggested that the most important feature of maternal language, as related to a baby's acquisition of language, is its referential immediacy and its match with what the baby is attending to and interested in.

In many cases, we have found the child's parent(s) to be the most efficient trainer the child would ever have. Parent involvement greatly accelerated the child's rate of learning. A center, working with a child without benefit of parental involvement, could not begin to accomplish what staff and parents can accomplish together, or the parent accomplished alone with help from parent trainers. Compared to ourselves and other teacher therapists, the parent could teach across skill areas (eating, dressing, toileting, talking, bathing, etc.), meshing remedial or rehabilitative procedures with basic skills while training the child to perform functionally in a natural environment. Ramsey, Beckman-Bell and Gowen (1980), and Wultz, Myers, Klein, Hall and Waldo (1982) have noted the positive attributes of training in the home. First, unobtrusive tasks were taught in a meaningful rather than artificial way. Second, learned tasks came under the control of natural reinforcers. This contributed to the child's ability to function effectively at home. Third, as the educational activities became part of the daily routine, there was less need to set the child in structured, repetitious sit-down situations to gain a skill. In time, they could teach younger children who do not tolerate the demands of a structured situation. Fourth, and most important, non-obstructive and integrated teaching was done during the daily routine and eliminated the time pressures of formal sessions.

It is surprising to me that we consistently omit the parent as a teacher. We tend to applaud ourselves for a child's accomplishments and direct our scorn toward the parent for a child's problem behavior. I, as you, work with developmentally delayed children. In many cases, the fact that they exist prior to our intervention speaks well for their parents. We will readily note the inappropriate things a parent does, such as not position the cerebral palsy child when feeding, or keeping the child on a bottle past a certain age, or not presenting the child the names of the object he is manipulating, in allowing him to sit in the W position, etc. We regard this as stupidity when it is actually ignorance on the parents' part. Once told what would be beneficial to their child, you are thanked and the child is the benefactor.

Elements of the Program (Hedge, 1987)

1) We have a cost-efficient method to train developmentally delayed children.

Where: At home in the developmentally delayed child's natural environment.

What: Selected skills they are ready to learn which they will use and need for living.

When: Early in life to prevent the breakdown of the parent-child relationship, to afford time and redundancy for learning; before the child looks out of place; before unacceptable attitudes and behaviors intervene.

Who: The parent, family, people in the child's own community (we learn about each other from being with each other).

2) We don't send the developmentally delayed child to a program--we send them home to their mothers.

3) We teach parents what to teach or train their developmentally delayed child in a developmental sequence, in the areas of communication, gross-fine, perceptual motor development, social and behavioral adjustment, self-help, and cognitive skills.

4) We train the natural parents, other family members, foster parents, adoptive parents, guardians, friends of the child and family, baby-sitters, teachers, and other persons involved with the child (doctors, social workers, public health nurses, mental health workers, teachers, etc.).

5) We usually train the mother as the developmentally disabled child trainer, case manager and advocate.

6) Services to the client and parent cross many adaptive goals.

7) We facilitate positive interaction between the developmentally delayed child and his parents.

8) We intercede between the parent and child to prevent the establishment or continuation of attitudes and behaviors that will slow down or stop the child's progress.

9) We help parents find funding for what the DD child needs.

10) We help parents cope with stress.

11) We often start with the parents early enough to prevent the formation of detrimental habits between the parent and child.

12) We do not usurp the mother and father's responsibility for the training of their DD child by directing the child to someone else.

13) We do not consider the DD child as "our child."

14) We direct parents to persons with programs for their child only if the person can help the parent with the child's needs.

15) We help parents find doctors, dentists, ophthalmologists, geneticists, evaluational programs, teachers, etc., who will take the time to explain, discuss, find a way to tell the parent what their child's problems are and what to do about them.

16) We connect parents of DD children with other parents of DD children who can help them solve their problems.

17) We facilitate community understanding and acceptance which benefits the child.

18) We work with the parents for long periods of time, until they can deal with their child without us.

19) We develop a one-to-one training program between the parents and their DD child.

20) We do not tell the parent how many times to do an exercise or task. We do describe what we want to attain before the next training meeting.

21) The parent trainer usually selects the tasks, techniques, procedures, materials and situations the parents will use to train their DD child.

22) We are available to work with the parent(s) any time during the day.

23) You must be dependable and consistent if you are to become an effective parent trainer. I feel the parents, in part, determine the importance and necessity of working with their DD child from the parent-

trainer's behavior. You give meaning, importance and value to what the parent is doing.

24) You show the parents your level of commitment by following up in person or by phone.

25) We collect data only if needed to prove the training is effective or ineffective.

26) We make or select training material and environments from the DD child's natural milieu to be used for training.

27) The materials are designed to meet the present individualized need of the child.

28) Any formal testing is done over time and after we feel we know the child well enough to know if he/she is performing for us.

29) We involve the parent in describing, evaluating, recording and interpreting for their child.

30) Our goal is not, simply, change the child's IQ.

31) We deal with where the child currently is, not where he or she should be developmentally, and work to achieve the next level of development.

32) We train the parents how to maintain and generalize skills they have taught their DD child in the natural environment.

33) An important element, to be considered, is time. We have suggested a DD child required more trials, and meeting time to learn skills. We train the DD child's parents to evaluate progress by the amount of one-on-one time they spend training their child.

34) We help the parents interpret, understand and adjust to the variety of test results, diagnoses, prescriptions, program placements, programs, prophecies and professional demeanors.

35) We train the parent to know what their child has achieved developmentally, what evaluational and educational systems use to describe and prescribe for their child, and how and what the parent needs to inform the system about their child to positively affect program development.

36) We train parents how to push professionals and programs for needed services for their DD child.

37) We work with the parents of DD children with a variety of handicapping or combination of limiting conditions and situations. Included are

children from deprived environments, battered and abused children, mildly to severely handicapped children.

38) We provide needed professional services not available--orthopedic, cardiology, audiology.

39) We provide respite.

40) We train parents based on their ability, competency, interests, willingness, environment, situation, and most importantly the time they have to work with their child (Hedge, 1988).

41) By now it is obvious that few parents will be the constant, consistent, always-motivated child trainer you might expect them to be. They are just like you.

42) Families referred to you or who contact you may not be ready or able, at that time, to become parent trainers. In most cases you will find yourself valuable to them in other ways.

43) The amount of parent training varies according to parent ability to meet their family's needs and work with their DD child.

What and How to Train Parents

a) You must select tasks the parent can do with the child that show results.

b) You attempt to teach the parent what their child's particular combination of learning and physical problems and abilities mean to their child's way of developing; and create tasks, objectives, goals, procedures, techniques, materials, and situations from which the child can be taught by his parents in his natural environment.

c) You teach different parents different ways.

d) You observe individual parent approaches and attitudes toward their children. You adapt your training to the particular parents' style, or change the parents' style if it's considered detrimental.

e) You work on ways to motivate parents to work with their child and discover the key reinforcers for the parents.

f) You talk to each parent differently at different times.

g) You find yourself in a variety of changing roles each day.

h) You do not work with the child alone.

i) Most parents do not have preconceived ideas of what their DD child will or will not be able to do--a self-fulfilling prophecy.

j) You do not form first impressions.

k) You believe all children can learn.

l) You use your experience as a teacher or therapist to draw the parents' attention to unrecognized abilities and gains in the child's development.

m) You deal with how the parents now trains his/her child, how the child has trained the parents, and how you can train the parents to train the child.

n) If you are going to be able to help the parents teach their child to talk and walk, you must be able to teach the parents how to foster appropriate learning behaviors.

o) To train parents, you must be able to explain the same concept as many ways as there are parents who need to work with the concept.

p) Positive change in the development of the DD child is the result of the parents' work with their child.

q) If a child is not growing or developing, it's your fault.

r) Do not take away the clients' or parents' dignity.

s) Treat the parent as a colleague. Constantly keep in mind that the child's primary and continuing educational relationship is with his mother (parents).

t) There are certain issues we leave alone--you better know these!

u) Don't push parents into what they are not ready to accept.

v) You often work to draw the parents' attention to the similarities in behavior of the DD child and nonhandicapped children.

w) It's appropriate to talk about other things in the parents' lives besides the child.

x) You do not tell a parent of a DD child you know what they are going through--you don't.

y) You must be able to compromise.

Comparison to Other Programs

In previous conference presentations when we have described our program as a home-based parent-directed program, we have encountered comments from other professionals that their programs are also home based and stress parent involvement. However, in subsequent discussions with these individuals, we came to realize that their programs differed from ours along a number of significant dimensions. In the paragraphs below, we will attempt to further clarify what we believe are the important parameters of the IECIP. Further, we will compare our program with several others, based on published descriptions of those programs.

Personnel

In recent years the IECIP has employed a speech therapist, a motor development specialist, and a behavioral psychologist. In the past, other professionals have participated on a limited basis including an audiologist and a feeding specialist.

Other home-based or parent-as-trainer intervention programs have also involved: nurses (Dunst, 1985; Hardy-Brown, Miller, Dean, Carrasco, & Thompson, 1987); paraprofessionals (Gordon, Guinagh, & Jester, 1977; Shearer & Shearer, 1972); special education teachers (Dunst, 1985; Shearer & Shearer, 1972); social workers (Dunst, 1985; Hardy-Brown, et al., 1987); pediatricians (Dunst, 1985); physical and occupational therapists (Dunst, 1985).

Services Offered

In recent years the IECIP has provided services to parents in the following areas: speech therapy, behavior management, motor development, other developmental stimulation (e.g., self-help, pre-academic, etc.), feeding problems. Although these are the areas generally targeted for child progress, staff frequently provide other services on an as-needed basis. These service are of a family support nature and involve such things as helping parents: find solutions to children's medical problems; advocate for their children in regard to public school program placement, IEP goals, curriculum; etc.

While these service areas are similar to those addressed by other programs, there also have been descriptions of programs providing individual and family therapy in the home (Hinckley & Ellis, 1985; Hurdy-Brown, et al., 1987).

Service Delivery Sites

Depending on the families' transportation resources, the children's problems, etc., IECIP staff may provide services in the home or at one of 18 regional sites (welfare offices, public health offices, city/ county buildings, churches, etc.) near the home. The cost of the program is greatly affected by conducting the training in SRS offices, city halls, public health offices, and other (no-cost) public facilities. Our service is in conjunction with the services provided by the professionals existing in the communities where we see clients. This contrasts with other programs which generally are either exclusively center-based (e.g., Bricker & Dow, 1980; Rosen-Morris & Sitkei, 1981; Safford, Gregg, Schneider & Sewell, 1976) or exclusively home-based (e.g., Cochran & Loftin, 1980; Hardy-Brown, et al., 1987; Perkins & Walter, 1987; Shearer & Shearer, 1972).

Who is Accepted for Services

Children are referred to the IECIP for a variety of problems including behavior and emotional problems at home or school, speech delays, and learning problems. It generally has been the policy of the IECIP to say "Yes" to the referral source when asked if we would see a child. We feel that this approach is one of the characteristics of the IECIP program that provides good relationships with our referral sources.

Once we have met with the children and their parents, if it appears that IECIP staff do not have the expertise to address the child's problem, then we work along with the parent to find someone who can be of assistance. For example, we may make several phone calls to find a physician or therapist who seems to have a special interest in the presenting problem. We consider it extremely important to refer the parent and child to a person we know can and will meet their particular needs. After a child and the parents are referred to another professional, the IECIP staff try to contact the parents to find out if they were helped and if they were satisfied with the services.

In instances when IECIP staff initially did not have the expertise to provide the needed services and the appropriate services could not be located within a reasonable distance, then IECIP staff have made an effort to gain the skills necessary to help the family.

We are not aware of other programs descriptions that have addressed this aspect of intervention.

Cost Per Client

Annual costs to provide IECIP services have been calculated at approximately $200 per client (Hedge & Johnson, 1987). A description of a similar parent-as-teacher program lists costs at $622 per year per child (Shearer & Shearer, 1974). We are not aware of the costs of center-based programs, but would anticipate them to be much higher.

Maximum Years Child Can Be Served

Although services for many children are terminated when the initial referral problem has been solved, those children with mental retardation or other chronic delays (e.g., autism) may continue to receive IECIP services indefinitely. For example, three of our present clients have been involved in our program for 12, 15, 16, years, respectively. Many other programs, it is assumed, terminate services when the child reaches school age (5 or 6 yrs.).

Transdisciplinary/Interdisciplinary

While each IECIP staff member has a primary professional identity (e.g., Speech Therapy, Psychology, Motor Development), there is an element of "the country doctor" in our activities. In other words, the small IECIP staff and the limited availability of resources in this geographical area has resulted in the professionals learning to provide services outside the field in which they were originally trained. In addition, consultations and direct help are frequently sought from professionals in other agencies, such as welfare and public health departments. This has resulted in a combined transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary approach.

For example, if the psychologist is working with a child that displays speech problems and nutrition problems, he will consult with the public health nurse for that region and will try to arrange for the speech therapist to work with the family. However, if the speech therapist has a scheduling conflict, the psychologist will address the speech problems himself (with consultations with the speech therapist as needed).

Although some program descriptions mention transdisciplinary approaches (e.g., Dunst, 1985), the exact nature of such services generally has not been clearly described. In other words, we have been unable to determine from published program descriptions whether single professionals in other home-based and parent-as-trainer programs provide parent training or other services across two or more disciplines. Shearer and Shearer (1974) do describe the reliance of professionals in other community agencies to supplement the limited staff in their program.

Frequency of Visits/Sessions

The IECIP schedule typically allows for one visit bi-weekly. Clients living in our home area have been seen weekly. In addition, more visits are arranged when it appears that two weeks will be too long between visits. It also has been possible to use telephone calls to bridge the time between visits. (Earlier attempts to limit visits to once monthly were found to be problematical.) Other programs reportedly have involved visiting: twice weekly (Gordon, Guinagh & Jester, 1977); weekly (Shearer, 1975); and monthly (Perkins & Walter, 1987).

Length of Visits/Sessions

IECIP sessions vary in average length from 15 minutes to 1 hour. Speech therapy and educational training sessions involving the speech therapist are generally scheduled for 15 minutes. Behavior management sessions involving the psychologist currently are scheduled for 30-45 minutes. Sessions for gross-, fine- and perceptual-motor development last 30 to 45 minutes. When necessary, for example during initial visits and sessions in which the child tantrums, a session is extended. The length of sessions in other home-based or parent-as-trainer programs typically has not been reported. One exception is the Portage Project which schedules visits of 1.5 hours (Shearer & Shearer, 1974). Sessions are goal-oriented. We work to achieve a level of parent-training/parent-understanding and their ability to demonstrate the task(s) that result in the prescribed training change for the child in the next one or two weeks.

Percentage of Teaching/Training/Therapy Done by Parents

IECIP staff do not provide direct services to the child. Interactions with the child are done to assess progress and to model procedures for the parent(s). While there appear to be other programs that involve parents as the child's teacher/therapist (e.g., Shearer, 1975; Perkins & Walter, 1987; Gordon et al, 1977), this approach differs from most center-based models in which the main instruction/ therapy is provided by the staff, with parents primarily used for generalization and maintenance.

Who is present during visits/sessions

Because IECIP staff do not provide direct services, the child and at least one caretaker must be present with the child during each session. Whether the referral involves inappropriate displays of behavior, speech, or learning difficulties, the problem is viewed as belonging to the family--not just the child. Therefore, the problems and possible solutions are discussed with both caretakers and children present.

Other home-based or parent-as-trainer programs seem to be take similar approaches. For example, Hinckley and Ellis (1985) describe a mental health program in which therapy is provided in the home with the involvement of at least one caretaker and as many other family members as possible. Likewise, Portage Project staff require the parent to stay with the staff member and child throughout the session (Shearer & Shearer, 1972).

Degree of Structure

To date, IECIP staff have tried to minimize the number of formal case conferences, amount of time involved with paper work, etc. Because we are not a public school program we have not had to provide written IEPs or formal transdisciplinary staffings on each client. Nor have we had to conduct lengthy formal evaluations. Because we are not a research program, we have not used complex data collection systems.

Generally, we utilize developmental scales and our knowledge of developmental progression, reports of other professionals (e.g., public health nurses, welfare workers), parents' verbal reports, parents' notes, parents' collected data, and brief observations of the child to assess his/her child's status and progress. Our goals are informally worded and of short duration; i.e., we try to set goals that can be achieved by our next visit. In regard to assignments, we encourage the parents to be teachers/therapist throughout the day. We seldom specify the number or length of times the parents should work with the children. Rather, we encourage them to spend as much time on the suggested activities as possible. Consultation with other professionals is on an as-needed, rather than scheduled, basis and generally involves informal discussions with one or two other professionals involved in the case.

Other programs appear to involve more standardized procedures. For example, one description of the Portage Model notes that all children are administered the Alpern-Boll Developmental Profile to assess functioning level during each developmental level, then they use of the Portage Guide to Early Education to facilitate planning (Shearer & Snider, 1978).

Functional Materials, Locations, and Skills

As recommended by Lewis (1987), the IECIP places a heavy emphasis on the use of functional materials to train functional skills in functional locations. In other words parents are trained to teach their children skills that will be beneficial in coping in the real world rather than in an academic environment. For example, receptive language may be taught in the kitchen while getting out utensils to set the table; the value of coins is taught in the grocery when buying a loaf of bread or pieces of candy.

We presently are aware of only one other home-based or parent-as-trainer program that emphasizes this functional approach--the Portage Project.

Their descriptions also stress the importance of functional curriculum goals, implemented in the natural environment, by the family, using materials found in the home (Shearer & Shearer, 1974, 1978).

Consistency

We believe that one of the keys to our program's success is the consistency of our appointments. Families learn that their appointments are every two weeks and that cancellations and rescheduling are extremely rare. It is estimated that out of each family's scheduled 26 bi-weekly visits, therapist cancellations amount to less than 5 (due to illness, vacations, conference attendance, etc.). We were unable to determine how other programs compared on this variable.

Staff Aggressiveness

In regard to cancellations, "no shows," and clients terminating services prematurely, IECIP staff make a concerted effort to contact each family in such situations. We try to determine what the problem may have been, express our regret at the situation, and encourage the family to return at their next scheduled time. It is not unusual to attempt to reschedule the missed appointment within the next few days. Again, we were unable to find reports of this variable in descriptions of other programs.

Nonproductive/Uncooperative Parents

Because of the important advantages of home-based, parent-directed interventions (Hedge & Johnson, 1987; Shearer & Shearer, 1974), IECIP staff are extremely persistent in their efforts to encourage parents to work with their children. Accompanying this is an attitude that even parents from illiterate families, the lowest SES levels, from single-parent families, etc., can be viable teachers for their children. To some extent, individual assignments are tailored to the family situation. However, IECIP staff use a number of techniques to persuade and encourage parents. This ranges from social reinforcement in the form of using modeling and verbal instructions instead of written assignments or providing praise and excitement for progress obtained, to verbal scoldings or eliciting help in the form of pressure from welfare agencies and courts. It is extremely rare for an IECIP staff member to "throw in the towel" and admit that a parent cannot be encouraged to do the job.

Most other descriptions of home-based and parent-as-trainer programs have not mentioned these issues. However, Shearer (1975) does describe similar efforts to elicit parent cooperation and participation, within the Portage Project.

Position Statement

We have worked to change from an agency-parent with DD child relationship to a parent-trainer/parent-of-DD-child partnership.

If you accept the importance of maintaining the parent-DD child relationship and providing the parent of a DD child with the information, support and training, to accept understand, train and plan for their child, you ask, "what do you do and what do you see other professionals or programs doing to meet this goal?"

Our observations of both private and public center-based, parent-directed and parent-center-involved programs revealed no program in Southeast Kansas even prepares the DD child's parents to contribute to the child's IEP, much less work directly with the child's parent to train the child. However, all programs said they worked with the child's parents. Our efforts to train preschool and public school special-education teachers and therapists have presented a variety of problems. Teachers find themselves ill-equipped to deal with the heterogeneous group of DD children they have in the classroom, especially at a ratio of ten children to one teacher. When asked to record the amount of time the teacher or therapist has to directly train the DD child in their classroom, the results indicated actual training was limited and ineffective. The continual restating of the same IEP objectives and goals year after year verifies this problem. Many DD programs provide respite for the parents, socialization for the DD child, and another milieu where the child matures at his own individual rate--but little meaningful training.

Have we merely developed and continue to support a failure system?

Our position is simple. For the reasons discussed throughout the paper, we feel that most 0- to 6-year-olds can be most effectively taught by their parents at home. In the case of older delayed children, we also believe that the parents can be more effective educators than can the classroom teachers; therefore, we believe the classroom teachers and parents should work together very closely when setting goals, choosing training techniques, and implementing training. Further, we believe that most current approaches to early intervention and special education (and indeed regular education) actually result in parents adopting the viewpoint, in regard to most education, that "My child will learn that at school." It is our position that over the course of the child's first 21 years, this attitude results in a significant reduction in the number of skills acquired, compared to potential achievements if the parents assume the role of the child's principal teachers. For the variety of reasons discussed in this paper, early intervention and special education teachers and therapists working with the child directly, rather than through the parents, cannot achieve the success that the parents themselves can achieve in training delayed children.

In theory, the provision of educational services to handicapped children that resulted from the passage of PL.94-142 in theory is an important achievement for such children. However, our visits to special education classrooms suggest to us that most handicapped students are not achieving at a level even approximating what we would guess is their potential. For this reason the recent proliferation of traditional, center-based pre-schools in our area frightens us. The recent passage of PL.99-457, and the incorporation therein of such features as a written Individual Family Service Plan (based on the Individualized Education Plan concept), indicates to us that the same systems that we see failing the 4- to 21-year-old delayed students will soon be implemented for 0- to 3-year-old children! This angers us!

As an alternative, we would suggest that early interventionists, special educators, and therapists begin altering their approaches. The models described here and by others (e.g., Perkins & Walter, 1987; Powell, 1982; Shearer & Shearer, 1974) that utilize parents as the child's primary teacher/trainer/therapist, we feel, are superior alternatives. If those professionals currently providing direct services to children will learn and implement the skills necessary to become effective parent trainers and will focus their efforts on developing parent-directed programs, we believe that they will find that they go home in the evenings with a much greater degree of satisfaction!

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An expanded version of this paper may be obtained by contacting Russell E. Hedge, Parsons UAF, P.O. Box 738, Parsons, KS 67357

The authors want to thank John E. Simmons for his help in preparing the section, "Description of IECIP Services."

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

9:00 - 10:20 AM

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Kids in Transition: A Process of Planning for Change (K.I.T.)

Children with special educational needs often encounter changes in their educational placement. One transition, for example, may be from special education home instruction programming to a preschool classroom. Another transition may occur when the child leaves the preschool classroom to attend a regular special education setting. A critical factor of a successful transition is the preparation of the children and their families for the adjustment to the future educational placements. Another factor is to assist preschoolers in the generalization of acquired skills to other environments.

An important factor for developing successful transitions for handicapped preschoolers is the involvement of family members, such as the parents, the child, and siblings, as active participants in transition planning. By approaching educational transitions from the perspective of the family system as well as from the school system, appropriate educational decisions for the needs of the child and the family can be made more effectively.

To promote a smooth adjustment, Project K.I.T. formalizes a planning process for the transition of handicapped preschoolers. The implementation of K.I.T. would be appropriate for Early Childhood Special Education programs when planning an educational transition for an identified handicapped student. K.I.T.'s planning process can be implemented by early childhood special education teachers, special education support staff, or, ideally, a combination of both both teacher and support staff member.

The planning process includes two components: one component provides transition preparations for the parent/child; a second component addresses the receiving school's staff. These transition preparations are implemented through a series of parent meetings, transition timetables, special education conference meetings, and inservice/planning meetings for the receiving teachers.

Parent Notebook

The parent notebook was developed to provide parents with a guide to special education information and procedures. This tool can be useful when preparing for a child's transition from early childhood special education (ECSE) programs to elementary regular/ special education programs. In addition, the notebook addresses the transition from special education home instruction services to the preschool special education classroom.

The Parent Notebook is intended to be used at a four-part series of parent meetings held during the child;s last year in the present preschool program or when the child moves from a home instruction program to an early childhood special education program.

The following topics are addressed at parent meetings:

Meeting 1	1.	Transition, which includes the planning and selection of the most appropriate program
	2.	Guidelines for parents of children with special needs
	3.	Explanation of Public Law 94-142
	4.	Parent's legal rights in special education
	5.	Transition planning timetables
	6.	Effects of transition on the family
Meeting 2	1.	Definitions of handicapping conditions, as defined by the Iowa Rules of Special Education (1985)
	2.	Special education program options
	3.	Individual educational programs
	4.	Special education program review and update
Meeting 3	1.	Parental responsibilities
	2.	Kindergarten readiness skills
	3.	Issues dealing with transition, such as visitation of possible programs
Meeting 4	1.	Discussion of program visitation
	2.	Parent-teacher communication
	3.	Daily report cards

A listing of organizations for parents of handicapped children and the NICHY (National Information Center for Handicapped Children and Youth) listing of national toll-free numbers are included in the appendix. Other schools/agencies are encouraged to add additional information which is pertinent to their population.

Educators' Resource Book

This resource book had been developed to provide educators with a guide to special education information and procedures. Numerous topics included in the resource book duplicate information presented in the parent notebook; it is important for parents and educators to have access to the same information in order to help promote a smooth transition for young handicapped children.

Section One of the resource book addresses transition: what it is, and who is involved. The section also includes an observation sheet for the receiving teacher to use when visiting the child's present program.

Section Two includes information entitled, "Strategies for Teaching Survival Skills". Studies have shown that survival skills are more important than readiness skills for a successful experience in kindergarten.

Section Three stresses the importance of a positive home-school partnership. Information is provided which facilitates communication with parents. For example, an easily marked chart as a daily report card is included, since the educator may not always have the time for formal, written communication.

The educators' resource book concludes with an appendix for reference. The appendix includes valuable information, such as the definitions of handicapping conditions from the Iowa Rules of Special Education (1985), a glossary of terms used in the field of special education, a list of classroom resources, and the NICHY list of toll-free numbers.

Project K.I.T. is intended to facilitate effective transitions for young children with special needs. K.I.T.'s formalized planning process was developed for Early Childhood Special Education programs in a rural area of Iowa, although its applicability appears to be nationwide. The success of K.I.T.'s implementation is dependent upon the cooperation of the sending and receiving schools/agencies, as well as the involvement of the family. When a child's transition is approached with a positive attitude, cooperation of those involved, and information preparation, the child with special needs is able to more effectively face such changes.

Richard Ashcroft
Mendocino County
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Ukiah, California

A Conceptual Model for Assessing Levels of Interpersonal Skill

Richard Ashcroft

ABSTRACT

The problems of teaching social skills to adolescents with behavioral disorders are discussed through program and literature review, specifically the problems of generalization of learned responses and the need for a conceptual base for social programing. A rationale is given for a conceptual model, and a conceptual model is presented and applied to programing an 8-week leisure skills class for 28 adjudicated wards of juvenile courts at a residential treatment center for emotionally disturbed youth. The results of this application are discussed.

Social skill levels of adolescents who come in contact with juvenile courts have been the target of a number of researchers. These juveniles frequently display high levels of various acting-out aggressive behaviors such as bullying, insulting, intimidating, manipulating, and fighting in combination with considerable deficiency in alternative prosocial behaviors such as negotiating differences, dealing appropriately with accusations, responding independently to peer pressure, and displaying understanding of their own and others' feelings (Glick & Goldstein, 1987).

A number of social skills training programs have been developed to address these difficulties. Social skills training attempts to teach prosocial behavior to individuals sometimes chronically engaged in antisocial acts. Although Schloss, Schloss, Wood, and Kiehl (1986) cite an absence of a comprehensive conceptualization as the most serious limitation in social skills literature, Goldstein and Segal (1983) describe the most effective programs as those conceptualized as remedial interventions for a natural socialization process that is deficient or that failed to take place.

In a 1984 Goldstein and Pentz evaluation study of the effectiveness of social skills training for adolescents, 95% of those studied consistently learned the skill taught. However, upon the return to target environments, gains tended to disappear. Goldstein and Kanfer (1979) report that examination of clinical and educational data reveal that transfer of gains is not a common outcome but rather the exception. By far the more common outcome is that improvement in maladapted social behavior neither persists nor transfers (Feindler, Marriot, & Iwata, 1984; Kirgin, Wolf, & Phillips, 1979). Perhaps one reason for this is that the aggressive behaviors tend to be rewarded immediately, consistently, and richly in the target environments where youths attend school, live, work, and interact (Glick & Goldstein, 1987). In one study (Schlichter & Horan, 1981) involving the replacement of angry and aggressive behaviors of incarcerated youths with prosocial behaviors, subjects complained that their gains were largely being ignored by custodial staff.

Schloss et al., in their 1986 evaluation study of 25 recent social skills training programs, cite among other limitations the serious shortage of assessment data on the generalization of skills to other settings. Perhaps one reason for this difficulty in training for transfer is that for the incarcerated portion of the juvenile population the target environment is inaccessible at the time training occurs. The stimulus conditions of training incarcerated or residentially placed youths differ greatly from the stimulus conditions of their natural settings. This difficulty does not appear to be diminishing as an increasingly punitive response to juvenile crime gives our nation one of the highest incarceration rates in the world (Rutherford, Nelson, & Wolford, 1985).

The transfer of learned response or generalization issue is not entirely dissimilar to the problems faced in the mid-1970s by program developers for the deinstitutionalization of severely handicapped individuals. Relevant literature overwhelmingly documents that changes in behavior of severely handicapped individuals displayed under the stimulus conditions of instruction most often did not generalize to more "ambiguous" natural environments (Stokes & Baer, 1977). In the case of deinstitutionalizing severely handicapped individuals, these difficulties led to the development of programing which would occur in natural settings, and this new practice tended to increase the likelihood that generalization would occur. Wehman (interviewed in Clark & Knowlton, 1987) describes social skills particularly as "highly contextual" and calls for their instruction within the community or at least within the context of real life activities.

It is in the spirit of conceptualizing a social skill paradigm as well as "contextualizing" social skills instruction within real life activities for individuals denied community access that the current model was developed.

This article is a description of and report on a model developed to assist teachers with programing decisions related to social skills levels of youth within the Court/Community Schools. Court and Community Schools is a subsystem of the regular California schools operated independently by county offices of education to meet the educational needs of incarcerated and probationary youth. School attendance is frequently mandated by juvenile courts as one of the terms of probation for youth who come under the courts' jurisdiction. Typically, many of these youth have been expelled from their regular schools. Other students (chronic truants, for example) can be referred by the school with or without court involvement. Yet another population lives in group homes and attends school at the residential setting. The court schools were established to provide educational services, as well as supervision regarding mandatory attendance (Section 48645 Article 2.5, and Chapter 6.5 1980, Cal. Code). Although it is difficult to reach an exact count of the number of students served by this system, a county-by-county estimate reveals that on any given day perhaps 100,000 students are in attendance in California with perhaps triple that number having been enrolled during the course of a year (Isaia, 1986).

The total population of adjudicated, incarcerated, and at-risk youth may be larger than the special education population, yet the educational need created by the primary presenting problems of this special needs, nonmainstream population has not yet generated its own educational field of study. No special licensing or coursework is required or available for teachers who work within this system. Educators have yet to address the special programing needs of this population with anything approaching the vigor which surrounded and followed the passage of Public Law 94-142.

Special education has an entire field of study generated by and in support of the licensing requirements of at least a half dozen different specialist credentials. Special education advanced study and research is established at the master's and doctoral levels at many universities. Curriculum publishers devote increasing portions of their offerings to the mandated needs of special learners. Yet the social casualties who attend Court Schools are specifically excluded from special education because their primary handicapping conditions are of social origin and because the most likely general classification, *behaviorally disordered*, has been disallowed in California as a funded category of *learning handicapped.*

The socially maladapted youths who are incarcerated or on probation represent a special needs population (with potentially remediable difficulties) who are currently not receiving educational programing specifically addressing the social nature of their primary disabilities. Their "treatment" is increased social isolation through incarceration or attendance in a separate school system. What frequently passes for social programing within Court Schools is behavior management focused on rule compliance as the primary goal (Ashcroft, 1985), leaving other areas of social behavior — namely, inter- and intrapersonal skills — undeveloped in the treatment paradigm for social remediation. The following model was developed to facilitate preparation of social programing and skill development.

Dimensions of the Model

This model conceptualizes interactions within an activity along three different dimensions. The activities used in developing the model and the scale were all leisure activities such as board games, softball, and video games, although it is likely the model could apply to other school activities. For purposes of clarity within this article, the only play object that will be used for the examples will be the basketball. The dimensions which interact to create the cells of the model are as follows.

Topographical features — the elements of an activity or task which are intrinsic to the activity itself, such as its rules and other constraints and agreements, overt or tacit, that define levels of complexity. The four levels of this dimension are:

1. Parallel — for example, individuals shooting baskets separately yet close enough to be mutually aware;
2. Interactive — for example, individuals shooting at same basket;
3. Cooperative — for example, shooters occasionally need to adjust their own turn in deference to other shooters; and
4. Organized/Abstract — for example, shooters begin to play a game with common rules.

Ecological features — interactions between and among the environments and the humans, especially regarding those agreements, tacit or otherwise, that define the use and potential of a given space. The levels of this dimension are:

1. Preferred — activity/environment relationships that are sought out repeatedly; individual is "comfortable" shooting baskets in playground;
2. Assigned — individual will shoot baskets as function of assignment (i.e., P.E. class);
3. Infrastructured — basketball as intramural or recess activity; and
4. Extrastructured — basketball as an interschool or community activity.

Social features — the vulnerability one will accept versus the control one will retain regarding "activity mates". The levels are:

1. Surrogate peer — individual will shoot baskets with a trusted staff member;
2. Preferred peer — individual will shoot baskets with a trusted "age mate";
3. Assigned peer — individual will shoot baskets with a staff-selected peer; and
4. Random — individual will shoot baskets in an activity where "activity mate" choices occur naturally or as a function of the structure of the activity, such as a tournament.

The three dimensions and four levels of the conceptual model are depicted in Figure 1.

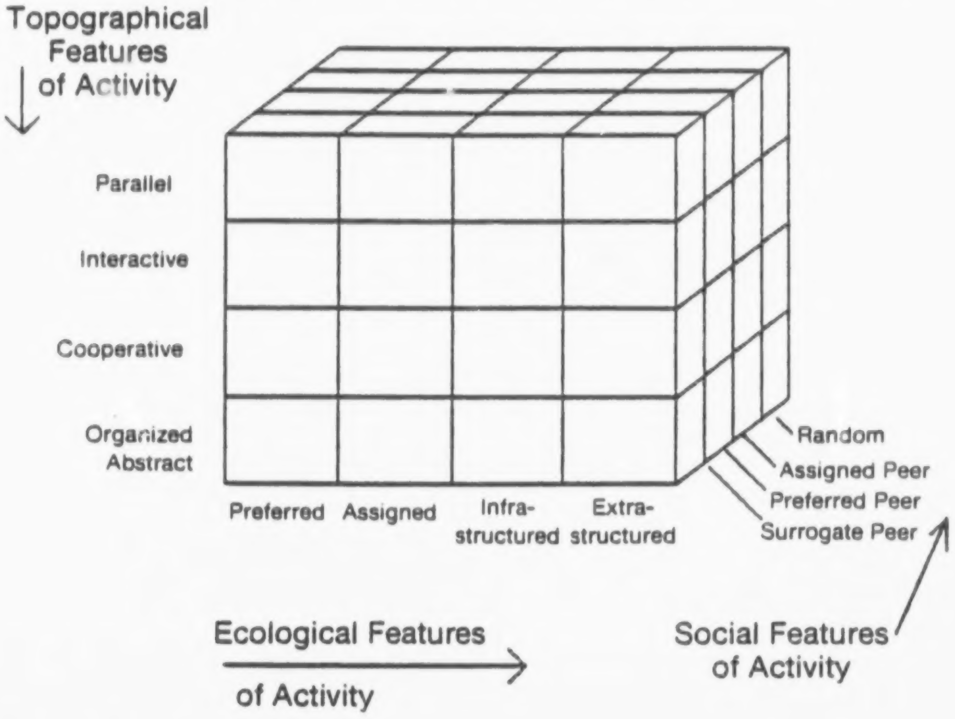

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model*

The Individual Cells

The four levels of the three dimensions generate 64 interactions represented as the individual cells of the model. These cells could be rank ordered to represent compexity levels of interpersonal activity. An example of an activity at the lowest rank would be the interaction of Parallel/Preferred/Surrogate Peer. This could describe an individual who is comfortable with basketball on the playground engaged in parallel play with a preferred staff member. The most complex interaction is Organized/Extrastructured/Random. This interaction could describe an individual participating on an organized coached team, playing basketball off-campus, in a tournament or in league play.

The 64 cells could be used to assess the levels at which an individual typically functions, and to devise specific activities/strategies for teaching skills that enable the individual to move into more complex activity levels.

Application

The model was used in the design of an 8-week elective class in Leisure Skill at a residential school for emotionally disturbed and adjudicated youth; 28 students participated in the class. The adults included the author, two paraprofessionals, and two volunteer grandparents. Available activities ranged from board games, cards, and video games to playground games such as basketball, slam ball, softball, and playground equipment. All levels of interaction were available except for the extrastructured ecological level.

There were four goals: (a) demonstrate a possible model for teaching prosocial development rather than rule-compliance; (b) test the model by actually demonstrating some improvement in skill levels; (c) allow student involvement in the process; and (d) accomplish these in an environment where adult control is highly valued.

Initially the model was explained to the students, and they were told that their levels would be graphed. Those who were interested in getting an "A" would need to spend at least half of the period in an activity higher than their individual baseline. Individual baselines were established within a week to 10 days. During this baseline period, students were allowed to select freely from available activities and these selections were graphed according to levels on a 64-point scale generated from the 64 cells of the model. Once baseline was established students were allowed free choice for a half period and were reinforced by a higher grade for choosing an activity during the other half period higher on the scale of cells than their established level.

Results

Data were not subjected to statistical analysis. Figure 2 is a composite graph summary of overall group gains on a graph generated from the 64 cells of the model. The range of the scale was limited by excluding the Extrastructured (off-campus) level of the Ecological dimension, and by the fact that researchers failed to generate a truly random level opportunity for the Social dimension. Both individual and group gains were made.

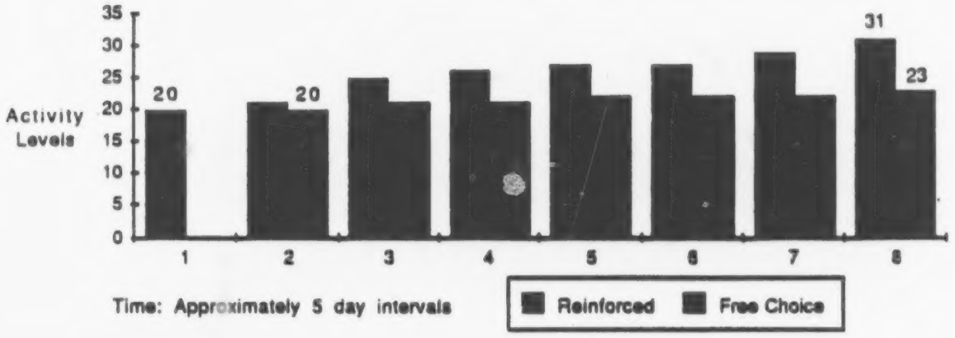

Figure 2. *Summary graph*

DISCUSSION

The model presented here represents an exploratory attempt to construct a method for assessing and changing interpersonal skill levels among incarcerated youth. The method has potential for conceptualizing levels of social complexity within other school activities, especially cooperative learning designs,or activities that are friendly towards or encourage higher levels of interaction between and among peers. It is likely to have a "contextual congruence" with social programing approaches with other special populations including the severely handicapped and the behaviorally disordered.

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CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

10:40 AM - NOON

Marcia Davies
County Schools
Currituck, North Carolin

ACIS

Alternative Curriculum (and)
Intervention (for) Success

Proposal For Presentation

Eighth Annual National Conference
ACRES - American Council on Rural Special Education

February 24 - 27, 1987
Monteray, California

Statement of Purpose

One of the most difficult issues confronting teachers of exceptional children at the secondary level is that of preparing their students to make a successful transition from the sheltered environs of the school-setting to the adult world and its harsh reality. The problem can be compounded when these teachers are attempting the task in rural schools and communities where the resources and opportunities are limited.

Teachers of exceptional children and their vocational education colleagues at Currituck County High School have recognized for some time that completion of high school can thrust their handicapped/at-risk students into traumatic circumstances for which they are ill-prepared. During the past several years, these teachers have developed program strategies which attempt to better prepare students for their transition to adulthood and the challenges of independent living.

Objectives

Transition skills are developed as a part of the Alternative Curriculum (and) Intervention (for) Success Program (ACIS) at the high school. A team of four teachers work with approximately fifty students in the target group. The teams objectives are to improve student strengths in a logical and progressive manner. These objectives include:

- providing relevant academic instruction for the individual student
- reinforcing academic skills with hands-on experiences
- relating hands-on experiences to job skill development
- providing directed work experience to improve self-concept and confidence

- demonstrating the social and community contribution each student can make
- fostering independent thinking and problem solving skills in each student

Students identified for participation in the ACIS program fall into two categories. The first includes those students who are emotionally handicapped, educable mentally handicapped, and the learning disabled. The second group consists of those students deemed at-risk due to their disadvantaged circumstances or other factors such as substance abuse, consistently poor academic performance, unstable family environment or potential drop-out. Many of these students enter the ACIS program having become disillusioned with their educational prospects. Their school experiences in the past have been marred by repeated failures and their personal lives are often such that schooling is a secondary concern.

In designing the ACIS concept program teachers sought the following outcomes.

a) Academic instruction is to be at a level appropriate to each students ability. Instruction will be of a practical nature in that the student would see its obvious application to other activities going on within the program. Academic success will be ensured and be one aspect of inproving the students self-concept.

b) Academic skills will be relevant to hands-on activities designed to improve student confidence and self-satisfaction in seeing through to completion tasks assigned by the teachers. Students will produce and repair (basketry, caning, crafts and woodworking) items so they may earn money for their personal use.

c) Hands-on experiences will be managed so as to foster a positive work ethic on the part of students. This emphasis will be critical to the acquisition of job skill development among participating students.

d) More advanced students will be assigned to directed work experience within the school-setting. Students will receive a regular salary and will work in housekeeping, the library, the cafeteria and the graphics shop.

e) Students will form a community service club which will undertake charitable and civic projects. The emphasis will be on community responsibility and the contribution each student can make whether it involves volunteering time, making donations or meeting the obligations associated with citizenship.

f) Students will be exposed to activities which demand ever-higher levels of skills in independent thinking and problem solving. Home, health, and social skills will be emphasized so that upon leaving school, each student can function as an independent, productive individual.

Rural Focus

Historically, Currituck County has relied upon agriculture and its watermen as sources of economic stability. The County is in a developing corridor between the Tidewater area of Virginia and the Outer Banks of North Carolina. The enticement for development is the rural nature of the County. As of yet, however; there are no traffic signals, no mass transit systems and no industry in the County. There is little in the way of entry level employment opportunities for students completing high school. The work force is required to commute to the urban areas north of the County, the resort areas to the south or the small towns to the west.

These circumstances present difficult obstacles to the handicapped and at-risk students completing their education at Currituck County High School. The ACIS Program is an effort to help these students in making a smooth transition in the face of these circumstances. To date, it has been most successful.

Dr. Armand Seguin
University of Alaska

Dr. Carole Veir
University of Texas at Austin

LINKS TO LEARNING: Audioconferencing & Telecommunications

There is a high need for learning outside of a formal school setting. There is also a constant need for teachers and workers to update themselves, and this need will continue to grow as the information explosion and technology cause changes in our society. This presentation will center on using both audioconferencing and telecommunications as two methods that can connect people in widely scattered geographic areas with learning. These methods have implications not only for meeting teacher inservice needs, but for meeting educational and communication needs for homebound students.

The specific objectives are to:

1) encourage others to use telecommunications for both communications and education,

2) show how a project to impact rural vocational special needs teachers used audioconferencing to educate teachers thousands of miles apart,

3) motivate special educators to use computers and telephones to "reach" students with physical handicaps, and

4) show how telecommunications could be used to teach the homebound job market skills for telecommuting employment.

Telecommunications has been used extensively in Alaska for both teaching and learning. Alaska is the largest state in the nation and it has the lowest population density. Programs that work in Alaska have the capability to be used in almost any rural setting. Project TeleSTART (telecommunications and Special Education Training for Rural Educators), linked well over one hundred teachers each semester by both workshops and regular, formal audioconferences. Some audioconferences had up to ten sites and over twenty participants.

Using computers in telecommunications is another area with great potential as an educational tool and the equipment required is minimal. What do you need?

A MICROCOMPUTER of almost any kind. It acts as an electronic switchboard.

A MODEM is a modulator/demodulator that connects your computer to the telephone line. Most are plug-in boards and prices run from $100 to $300 for models that run at 1200 baud.

The COMMUNICATIONS SOFTWARE is what tells your computer how to act like a telephone and send appropriate signals.

A TELEPHONE CONNECTION is needed. Generally, telephones are not actually used, but simply the standard wall jack.

Once the equipment is setup correctly, the computer can be told to automatically dial into another computer and connect automatically. This process can be tricky for beginners but need not be so if properly set up.

Some of the important uses of computer telecommunications are electronic mail, computer conferencing and computer based learning. Electronic mail is an extremely efficient form of communications that can be used 24 hours per day and worldwide. However, it can be just as effective if used across town or within the same building. The "electronic message" is simply sent to one or more "electronic mailboxes" on a computer. Nationwide services use large computers, but a small Apple can be used effectively with fewer people. The "Educator's Express Bulletin Board" out of Bellingham, Washington, is a good example of a workable system. After the message is sent, the recipient can then "check" his or her mail. They would then have the option to reply instantly, if appropriate. SpecialNet is a large service that offers both electronic mail and many informational offerings on the same system.

Computer conferencing is an extension of electronic mail. A good definition from BYTE magazine is that "computer conferences bring together people with similar interests and complenmentary needs to exchange information and discuss problems." These "conferences" can be held by anyone with a computer and access to a phone line. With the proliferation of computers on desks across the world, and the ability to be used 24 hours per day, this medium has found wide useage. People can "connect" from widely scattered areas with a minimum of expense and difficulty.

Education is yet another use for telecommunications. Several colleges and universities offer classes that primarily use the computer as a communications tool. Though it is not appropriate for, say a class in "piano playing," or other areas, it can be used for many subjects. Thus, students can be served without coming to a central location.

One example of using computers to teach with is a class in "Using Electronic Mail in Education," offered by the University of Alaska. Except for the beginning lesson, all other information and lessons are found on the University's mainframe computer. Students are issued Usernames and most use home computers to access and complete the class. Almost three hundred people have completed the class and a sample session will be demonstrated.

Both audioconferencing and telecommunications are exciting new links to connect people to learning. They can and should be used for both academic and job preparation. It is said that by the year 2,000 about 75% of all jobs will include the use of the computer. Many of these tasks can be performed from a remote location. Students and teachers need to "get connected."

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Electronic University Network
TeleLearning Systems, Inc.
505 Beach St.

Western Behavioral Sciences Institute
School of Management
and Strategic Studies
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La Jolla, CA 92038-2029

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TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

1:00 - 5:00 PM

TTTW

TRANSITION TECHNIQUES THAT WORK

- OR -

TACTICS, TRICKS, TECHNIQUES IN THE WORLD OF TRANSITION

Julie Green
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Coeur d'Alene, Idaho 83835

TTTW: Transition Techniques That Work or Tactics, Tricks and Turmoils in the World of Transition

Preparing Special Education and Special Needs students for successful and independent living is a challenge of balance between theory and practical application. "Transition," "career education," and "vocational counseling" are familiar buzz words to those of us involved in implementing functional and community-based instruction for these target student populations.

The purpose of this presentation is to disseminate information about viable programming, strategies and philosophies currently in practice in a rural community in Northern Idaho. Demonstrations will highlight collaborative planning between Special Education, regular mainstream programs, alternative (At-Risk) high school curriculum, community members, parents and adult service agencies. In addition to providing a basic overview of services developed by this school district, the presentation will focus on adaptive, transferable techniques pertinent to any rural transition program. Emphasis will center on putting the theory of transition into a workable, manageable system of daily instruction, using the community as the actual classroom and assessment environment.

To realize the objective of sharing implementation tactics for transition programming, the presentation will define the historical perspective of school to independent living preparation. This will provide a structure of current transition theory uniformly accepted and recognized nationwide. Once the basic theoretical tenets are established, those attending the presentation will be asked to participate in establishing, pinpointing and modifying those transition areas and tactics specific to their local program or district needs.

ACRES: Call for Papers Proposal: TTTW

Ideas and suggestions to be shared will include adaptive curriculum and community access methods that have proven the most useful. The program model presented will cite development of functional and curricular domains of personal management, community functioning, recreation and leisure activities and vocational education. These domains encompass all areas of independent living development necessary to insure the highest degree of self-sufficiency possible for every student.

Since handicapped and special needs students reflect a diverse spectrum of abilities, interests and motivations, particular attention will be spent on the individualization process. This is necessary in the initial assessment, transition plan development, parental input and subsequent individualized programming and instruction. There is not one formula or method that will ensure student success and independence in every instance. However, there are similar practical implications indigenous to the ideas behind transition services.

Common logistical challenges are present wherever transition is attempted in rural areas. Lack of diversified services, a finite (and often inadequate) budget, competition for existing jobs and lack of community support are hurdles that are often the rule and not the exception. This workshop will provide examples of methods used to solicit community support, parent participation, student cooperation, peer tutor mentoring, administrative and regular education enthusiasm and transition success. These practical implications will be specific "how to" proposals including suggestions on pitfalls, stumbling blocks and concerns to be considered.

Student handicapping conditions to be addressed in this presentation will include severely to mildly handicapped junior high and secondary youth as well as special needs students manifesting "at-risk" behaviors. Although this reflects a wide-range of disabilities, a common concern for an all encompassing program for all student's successes will be presented.

ACRES: Call for Papers Proposal: TTTW

The emphasis and philosophy of this workshop is to provide a step-by-step methodology for providing exceptional students, their parents and teachers a workable solution to the challenge of preparing for the career of life in rural America. Our nationwide theories on transition are intact, collaborated and uniform. The practical application of these theories can be systematically and successfully implemented as well.

In August, 1983, the Special Education Department of the Coeur d'Alene, Idaho School District initiated a special project to address the issues of work experience and transitional services to special education students. Transition, by definition, implies change. The non-handicapped individual anticipates, develops and assimilates life's changes as a natural and integral part of growth and success. Handicapped and disabled high school students, however, have traditionally been denied adequate information, preparation and access to the process of successful transition from school to the adult community. Recognition of this deficit in a handicapped student's education has resulted in program re-evaluations, new curriculum structures and long-term educational objective commitments to rectify these short-falls. The solution has evolved into community-based transition programs.

Coeur d'Alene's Transition Program functions within a rural setting with traditional small-community concerns and activities. The resource-based economy and subsequent support services serve mining and seasonal resort trade. These are areas of high unemployment which create adult competition for jobs that might otherwise serve handicapped youth.

The district cooperates with the local Mayor's Committee for Hiring the Handicapped as well as adult service agencies such as Vocational Rehabilitation, Job Service, and Health and Welfare. This provides a unified networking system, reinforcing goals presented through community based instruction and accessing viable channels for students entering community life following graduation. Parents, employers, service agencies and school personnel nurture and maintain this professional community comraderie, thus allowing all handicapped students to flow into the mainstream of the town in which they live.

To serve a diverse range of handicapping conditions, the transition program is organized into two components. Those students staffed into the domain curriculum self-contained program vary in abilities from moderate to mild mental retardation. To provide direct comprehensive service to our high school self-contained students, teachers utilize a community-based functional instruction strategy. This develops a chronological age appropriate, functional curriculum for instruction, organized into domains of personal management, community functioning, recreation/leisure and vocational training. Examples of specific objectives and activities included in the domains are budgeting, grocery shopping, safety skills at home and work, social skills training, reading for leisure and information, food preparation, laundry and clothing selection and care. Classroom instruction and functional simulations are supplemented through actual community-based activities and worksite placements for a minimum of fifty percent (50%) of the student's day. Every student in the program receives a wage commensurate with his capabilities, productivity and quality of work. Special wage certificates are secured through Idaho Wage and Labor Standards when appropriate.

Supplementing the instructional staff of the domain curriculum program are peer tutors who provide invaluable assistance with individual learning programs for both in-school and community-based instruction. These high school juniors and seniors are trained in specific techniques used in teaching and managing behavior of special education students to whom they are assigned. Peer tutors also serve as non-handicapped role models exhibiting age appropriate social interaction and behavior. Each tutor receives a social studies elective credit for this one semester class and is evaluated weekly on consistent attendance and performance.

The second component of the transition program encompasses those students identified as learning disabled who have been previously staffed into the resource room. These students have a two year involvement in the COPE (Coeur d'Alene's Occupational Prevocational Education) program with a culminating experience of an independent job placement. Classroom instruction develops skills such as socialization, written communication (job applications, resumes, and forms), oral communication (interviewing, asking for a raise), financial management (checking accounts and budgeting), and independent living skills (comparison shopping, rental agreements). Community agencies such as Vocational expectations and goals for all members of the community team which will ultimately assist the student with the transition process. The entire community has been inventoried and cataloged into a community resource manual. This pinpoints available services, recreation, leisure, potential worksites and community functioning resources. Using this tool, the vocational coordinator contacts establishments for potential liaisons between school and community.

Utilizing a longitudinal evaluation established by the University of Idaho Special Education Transition Department, program staff have collected and assessed data reflecting graduate's success rate in entering the community upon graduation. In the three years since its inception, program graduates have sustained an employment rate of 81%. In many instances, former program students are working with employers and utilizing services established while enrolled in transition services. Ninety percent of former worksites and community-based instructional establishments have asked to become reinvolved in our program.

Individuals interested in implementing transition services are welcome to visit Coeur d'Alene's Community Based Program. For information contact Julie Green, Secondary Transition Program Coordinator, Coeur d'Alene High School, Coeur d'Alene, ID. 83814, (208) 667-4507.

Cooperative Learning and Computers in the Rural Classroom

Mary Male
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San Jose, California

Proposal Abstract

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this workshop is to provide an awareness and practice in applying cooperative learning strategies to the use of the computer in the classroom. Research indicates that the use of cooperative learning with the computer enhances achievement and self-esteem and promotes the development of social skills.

OBJECTIVES:

Participants will:

1) list the essential components of cooperative learning
2) view a classroom situation and identify components of cooperative learning that are missing or present
3) experience a cooperative learning computer lesson
4) plan a lesson using software and curriculum appropriate for their classrooms

RURAL FOCUS:

Rural classrooms frequently have more students than computers and have students who are learning at different levels and rates. Cooperative learning enables the teacher to address varying needs with the computer resources that are available.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS:

How students interact with each other is a neglected aspect of the use of computers in the instructional process. How teachers structure student-student interaction patterns has a great deal of influence on how well students learn, their attitudes toward school and subject areas, their attitudes towards each other, their self-esteem, and their attitudes toward the computer and computer-related careers.

This workshop will utilize a handbook, Computers and Cooperative Learning: An Activity Guide for Teachers which will guide teachers step-by-step through the process of making their computer lessons cooperative in format, rather than individualized or competitive. Numerous software programs which lend themselves to cooperative learning will be discussed. Participants will work hands-on to experience and evaluate the use of the computer and cooperative learning for their situation.

THEME AREA:

Technology

SPECIAL INTERAST SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

1:00 - 4:00 PM

Response to PL 99-457, Titles I & II

At-Risk Forum

Susan Istre
Oklahoma State Dept. of Health

Kathy Odle
ACCH Parent Consultant
New Site, Mississippi

Pam Tazioli, Paulie Mills
University of Washington
Seattle, Washington

Deb Rice Hansen
Dept. of Education
Des Moines, Iowa

Pam Potocik
Little Tennessee Valley Ed. Coop
Lenoir City, Tennessee

Lisa Rogers
Child Development Resources
Lightfoot, Virginia

Armena Taylor
University of Wymoing
Laramie, Wyoming

P. J. Powers
University of Montana
Missoula, Montana

RESPONSE TO P.L. 99-457, TITLES I AND II: ISSUES CONCERNING FAMILIES RESIDING IN RURAL AND REMOTE AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES

Prepared by Members of the

Rural Early Childhood Special Education Task Force
American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES)
© August 1987

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Andrea Lazzari, Department of Education, Richmond, VA

INTRODUCTION

The American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) is a national organization dedicated to improving services for rural individuals with disabilities. Within the national organization a number of task forces focus energy and ability on areas of specific interest and expertise. Task force members contribute ideas and information which are then used to establish priorities and develop effective rural special education strategies and practices. The Early Childhood Task Force is one such task force.

During the 1987 ACRES conference in Asheville, NC, the Early Childhood Task Force established a commitment to provide information to state and federal organizations regarding some of the issues surrounding the implementation of Titles I and II of P.L. 99-457.

Our intention is to highlight specific issues (see below) and to illuminate how they differ from those encountered in urban areas: Our primary concern is that the federal rules and regulations and the states positions on the new law reflect the different needs of rural and remote communities.

PLANNING

There is a need for legislative planning so that the funds are distributed to children who need services, regardless of where they live. Urban and rural areas require different planning and implementation for a number of reasons, as stated below.

Legislative planning is critical to the provision of services for all handicapped infants and preschoolers; however, planning takes on new dimensions when professionals consider programming uniquely designed for service delivery in rural settings. Rural areas have distinct features with significant implications for legislative action and allocations for early childhood special education services. While child find procedures have been implemented throughout the nation, researchers have indicated that many handicapped children who reside in rural areas are not identified until they reach the legal age to enter elementary school. Budgets based on child find data are not sufficient for service delivery in rural areas (Anastasiow, 1981).

Characteristics inherent in rural environments create higher costs for service provision to infants and young children who are handicapped. Some factors related to increased cost of service delivery include: distance between infants/families and services, inadequate transportation, lack of well-qualified personnel, cultural and language variations, severity and diversity of handicapping conditions, and unavailability of therapeutic and technological equipment. Additionally, individualized service delivery models using a transdisciplinary team results in added expense. (Helge, 1984).

To ensure that legislative appropriations are consistent with the needs of young handicapped children in rural areas, parents and professionals must be knowledgable of methods to assure legislative planning, and possess the skills to communicate effectively with decision-makers and impact legislative action. Knowledge of the issues related to early interventions and its relevance to society and tax money is essential. This information should be presented to legislators in concise documents that are written in lay terms. Statistical data supporting efficacy and cost effectiveness of early intervention programs in rural areas and the benefits to their constituencies must be stated; however, human interest details should not be overlooked.

REPRESENTATION

Professionals on the state interagency coordinating council must truly represent the approaches which work for the child, rather than use the council to foster the development of their professions.

According to Section 682 of P.L. 99-457, at least three public or private providers of early intervention services shall be members of the state interagency coordinating council. Ethically, and legally, professionals are bound to make recommendations on the basis of child need, rather than on existing services or on matters that would prove to be conflict of interest, (Sec. 682, f.)

The ACRES Early Childhood Task Force recommends that local, state and national facilitators assist existing agencies with collaborative efforts in order to effectively use available services and to realistically assess needs. Such an investment in facilitation would prove to be cost effective due to better utilization of existing resources and a more accurate determination of needs. Such an approach would also advocate for appropriate services to meet the needs of children and families rather than any individual or group benefit. Third party facilitators would provide checks and balances for all activities of interagency council members, thereby ensuring compliance with the law.

Facilitators should represent both urban and rural communities, so that the needs of both could be recognized and all-inclusive plans be developed.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Parent involvement in the development of state plans is critical. Parents from urban and rural areas alike bring a more complete perspective to overall development of a comprehensive state plan.

The ACRES Early Childhood Task Force strongly supports parent participation in the development of each state plan for the delivery of services to infants and toddlers with special needs and their families. Parental input is vital to ensure that the new law is supportive of families and that the full potential of the legislation is realized (Association for the Care of Children's Health, December, 1986).

Parents of handicapped, developmentally delayed, and at-risk children from birth to six should be represented on the Interagency Coordinating Council of each state, including parents from rural or underserved areas who often have little or no input in policy decision making. These parent representatives shall have the opportunity to: provide receommendations on the development and the coordination of all relevant "state plans" including medicaid, mental health, developmental disabilities, EHA, etc; comment on application for state funds and the areas to be served; assist in the development of consistent eligibility standards and criteria among programs and agencies; assist in the development of procedures to facilitate transition between programs and agencies; and help identify policies and procedures that currently inhibit cooperative efforts and offer solutions for remedies to these barriers (Division of Early Childhood, March, 1987).

FAMILY SERVICE MODELS

There is a need for a focus on family service throughout, as well as to ensure the development of valid early childhood special education models; not simply downward extensions of elementary school models.

"The evidence indicates that the family is the most effective and economical system for fostering and sustaining the development of the child. The evidence indicates further that the involvement of the child's family as an active participant is critical to the success of any intervention program. Without such family involvement, any effects of intervention, at least in the cognitive sphere, are likely to be ephemeral, to appear to erode once the program ends. In contrast, the involvement of parents as partners in the enterprise provides an on-going system which can reinforce the effects of the program while it is in operation, and help sustain them after the program ends." (Bronfenbrenner, 1974)

There is a strong consensus that the needs of infants, toddlers, and preschool children with disabilities and their families are distinguished from the school age special needs population. Current research evidence supports the theory that the interaction of infant, toddler, and preschool age children and their families is of critical importance to development, especially in the area of cognition. The primary social system of infants, toddlers, and preschool children is their family. Therefore, it is essential that early intervention programs build staff and service delivery systems that actively integrate families.

Attention to this issue should consider the different needs of families who live in rural areas of the country. Parents in small rural communities may have fewer choices of programs for themselves and their children; they may have tremendous transportation problems. Parents may feel isolated for other reasons such as fear of lack of confidentiality by professionals and other families in a program, or lack of the sense of identity to others when their child is the only one who has a particular problem in the whole community.

SERVICE DELIVERY MODEL

States must be encouraged to consider a number of workable service delivery models in order to meet the needs of widely diverse areas of a given state - especially rural areas!

The ACRES Early Childhood Task Force suggests that it is unlikely that any one service model can meet the diverse needs of all children and families within any state. Geographical barriers and the sparsity of population in some regions may prohibit service delivery in a center-based setting. On the other hand, a scarcity of pediatric personnel (e.g., therapists, interventionists, nurses) in a given region may necessitate children being transported to services so that precious professional hours are not lost while traveling great distances from one home to another. Some children may be best served through a combination model which enables peer interaction in a center, yet extends the option of home visits to parents who are unable to participate in center-based activities due to the lack of transportation, the need to remain on the farm during daylight hours, the presence of several preschool children at home, or other individual factors.

When one considers the unique needs of families and children within any one state or even within any given region of a state, the need for flexibility in service delivery models becomes imperative. Only by considering a number of workable service delivery models in conjunction with the unique characteristics of a state and the regional variations within a state, can decisions be made which will result in appropriate and effective services to young handicapped children and their families.

SERVICE TRANSITION

"The steps to be taken supporting the transition of the handicapped toddler to services provided under part B to the extent such services are considered appropriate." (section 677(d)(7))

The ACRES Early Childhood Task Force strongly supports transition planning between infant-toddler programs (birth - age 2) and early childhood programs (ages 3-5). The needs of very young children who are disabled and their families change frequently during these critical stages of human development. These needs must be continuously reassessed and program changes made accordingly.

Comprehensive transition planning and implementation includes following fundamental components:
-the timely transfer of appropriate records;
-a written timeline of transition events;
-a comprehensive awareness by service providers of other services within their communities;
-a definition of skills required by children for entry to and exit from specific programs;
-the advocacy of parent involvement in the transition planning and decision making processes; and
-postplacement procedures to ensure the successful transition of individual children.

An efficient transition process will result in: minimal disruption in programs and services; placement of children in the most appropriate program options available; a clear understanding by professionals and parents of the transition process; and the timely adjustment of the children and families to new programs (Gallaher, Maddox, and Edgar, 1984).

Specific considerations need to be addressed when planning and implementing transition procedures for rural providers. Despite the professional familiarity that exists in rural settings, a written transition plan will document procedures and systematize the process. Adequate compensation needs to be considered for logistical problems such as distance between children and services, provision of transportation, and the resulting minimal program options. Program organization, coordination of available services and adequate funding can alleviate problems specific to rural and remote areas.

Lastly, it is recommended that the Title I and the Title II lead agencies cooperatively demonstrate support of transition procedures through fiscal and philosophical efforts. Support from federal, state, regional, and local administrators is also necessary for planning and implementing of effective transition procedures.

TRAINING

Training needs should be addressed along with certification issues for educators as well as other professionals who are involved in providing services for young handicapped children.

The ACRES Early Childhood Task Force acknowledges that shortages in personnel trained to serve preschoolers with handicaps have been reported by 15 states (Report of Preschool Programs, Oct., 1986). The passage of the new legislation will expand services and, in turn, an even greater need for more professionals in the field. In the short time there is to gear up for the 1990 deadline for implementation, it would appear that much is yet to be accomplished in training personnel. In addition to the general lack of trained personnel, the issues of rural training, personnel recruitment, and retention need to be addressed. These issues compound the problem of quality service delivery.

Consideration needs to be given as to how current certification requirements in each state respond to the skills needed by professionals to provide quality education to young handicapped children in urban and rural areas. Again, this tends to present some problems in rural areas because of the recruitment and retention difficulties in the provision of services.

The Early Childhood Task Force thanks the reader for their attention to the above issues and for considering our recommendations.

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Team Education for Adolescent Mothers

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Team Education for Adolescent Mothers

Introduction

Teenage pregnancy continues to be a nationwide concern. Pregnancy and childbirth among young adolescents frequently results in severe adverse health, social and economic consequences, including: a higher percentage of pregnancy and childbirth complication, a higher incidence of low birthweight babies, a higher infant mortality and morbidity, a greater likelihood that an adolescent's marriage will end in divorce, a decreased likelihood of completing schooling, and higher risks of unemployment and welfare dependency. Education is a key factor in counteracting these socioeconomic consequences of early childbearing. Yet support programs to improve the outcomes for teens are often unavailable or narrowly focused with little demonstrated subsequent impact. Many programs are only for the pregnant teens and do not focus on the growing infant or the extended families. Others are school-based and offer no services for girls who have dropped out of school. There is an even greater need for high-quality care services for pregnant adolescents and their infants who live in rural areas. Typically, these adolescents receive limited health care services and not much else.

Some of the expected benefits and results from educational programming for pregnant and parenting teenagers are: improved care services for adolescent parents, improved care services for the infants born to adolescent parents, improved ability of pregnant adolescents to access resources and support services, increased opportunity for adolescents to finish high school or other training programs and find employment, increased awareness and concern for pregnant adolescents by the general public, decreasing referrals of teen mothers for child abuse and neglect and awareness of adoption as an alternative to child rearing.

Project TEAM (Team Education for Adolescent Mothers) is a national care service demonstration program funded by the Office of Adolescent Pregnancy Programs in its third year, and is demonstrating, evaluating, and disseminating a model for providing high-quality care services for pregnant adolescents, adolescent parents, their infants, and their extended families. The project has four site locations: Washington High School and the Area Vocational Center, Ogden, Utah; Washoe High School, Reno, Nevada; Shiprock Alternative High School, Shiprock, New Mexico; Monument Valley, San Juan, and Whitehorse High School at the Southeastern Utah Navajo Reservation which serves the four corners area of Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico. TEAM serves pregnant adolescents (13-17 years of age), teen mothers whose first child is under 10 months of age, and the adolescent's extended families. Measures are taken of various aspects of the history and current developmental functioning of the adolescents studied and of the development of their children.

The program's intervention consists of four components, including a health component, a structured group counseling component, an infant component, and a volunteer role model component.

The components are delivered in such a way that the adolescent receives intense services during her initial involvement with the program and then less intense services as the adolescent becomes more responsible and is able to function more independently. For example, during the first several months of the program, the adolescent receives all the program services. During the second year of the program, the services are less intense. Finally, upon completion of the program, the adolescent may be asked to volunteer as a role model for individuals just entering the program. The program components are described below.

The first component is the health component. When a pregnant adolescent enters the program, she is questioned as to whether or not she is currently seeing a physician on a regular basis. If she is not, she is given assistance in finding a suitable doctor and also applying for financial aid if necessary. Following delivery, the doctor is contacted and asked to fill out a questionnaire regarding the adolescent's general health and the details of her delivery.

The second component of intervention is the group counseling program. This program consists of weekly group sessions for the adolescent mothers. The group sessions are structured to focus on encouraging the completion of educational plans and job training, and opportunities to learn appropriate social skills. The one-hour sessions are also utilized to develop support systems among the mothers themselves as the adolescents report progress toward goals and share significant experiences. Each session is conducted by a trained school counselor at each site to insure that the adolescents from the four sites receive similar programs.

A third component of the intervention is the infant component. All of the pregnant adolescents and young mothers are required to attend a child development class where various aspects of child development, discipline, nutrition, safety, etc., are discussed. Following each class discussion, the adolescents are given an opportunity to observe and interact with babies in a nursery. Supervision is provided to encourage the adolescents to respond positively to the babies and toddlers.

In addition, all of the babies receive extensive testing at 3, 12, and 24 months of age. If the testing indicates a developmental delay, an individual program is written for the child. The adolescent mother, father, or someone from the extended family is then trained to carry out the program on a daily basis at home. Staff members meet with the adolescents weekly to insure that they are completing the home program as directed and to make any necessary changes in the child's program.

The fourth component of the intervention is the role model advocacy program. This component is available to all the adolescent girls who wish to receive this service. When possible, the role models are selected from a population of women who were adolescent mothers who have received prior services from participating agencies, have succeeded in completing their education, and are either gainfully employed or successful mothers and housewives. These women will have experienced the same problems being faced by the pregnant adolescents, but will have solved these problems in a constructive fashion. When it is not possible to find enough role models who were themselves adolescent mothers, other women from the community are asked to participate in the program. Once identified, the role models receive training with materials developed by the project. Following this training, each role model is paired with an adolescent and the two of them will then have at least one contact, either by phone or visit, each week.

The project has developed the following products to aid in accomplishing project goals:

1. **The Adolescent Development Group Manual**, which outlines weekly group sessions structured to focus on encouraging the completion of educational plans and job training, and opportunities to learn appropriate social skills.

2. **The Role Model Advocates for Adolescent Mothers Manual**, which outlines a program for utilizing "successful performers" to serve as role models for pregnant adolescents and adolescent parents.

3. **A Parent Intervention Manual**, which includes assessing the child, training the parents in infant stimulation techniques,and educating the parents in the area of child development.

4. **Documentation Forms for Health-Related Services**, which provide a method for collecting health-related data received during pregnancy and after the birth of the adolescent parent's child.

One of our four sites, the Utah Navajo Reservation site, represents a unique rural setting and is a part of the Utah Navajo Development Council, a private, non-profit corporation with programs in education, health, housing, and natural resources. The UNDC programs benefit approximately 5,300 Navajos living in the Utah portion of the Navajo reservation. This area is comprised of 1.3 million acres of arid, rugged land within the Colorado and Green River Plateau regions. It is recorded that the Navajo comprise the largest, wealthiest, and most energetic tribe in America, and the achievements of the Navajo people throughout their long history have been many and outstanding. In spite of this, the Navajo reservations still exist with unemployment, isolation, language barriers, poverty, and some poor living conditions. Traveling is difficult, and distances are measured not in miles, but according to the conditions of the road to be traveled. These factors aid in preventing the Navajo from giving their children the attention they need. In addition to these factors they are generally excluded from the mainstream of American life.

Today, although Navajo school attendance has more than tripled since 1950, the quality of education offered on the reservation continues to lag behind the national standard. The language barrier is one of the most important contributors to academic failure among Navajos because it affects the student's entire progress throughout the White dominated school system.

According to the 1974 Bureau of Indian Affairs figures, 70% of Navajo children entering school cannot function in English on a first-grade level, yet they are expected to learn in a system where English predominates. The problem is further compounded for the Navajo child because of the vast differences in thought and expression that make communication between the Navajo and the American cultures difficult. A large number of Navajo Indian students are faced with educational failure because of difficulties resulting from multiple causative factors. Included in this group are the expecting and parenting teens.

However, the Navajo people are unique and special because of their language, culture, and religion which are truly their own. Educators and site coordinators at the reservation schools are committed to the present and future wellbeing of the expectant and parenting adolescents, and provide project program components in harmony with cultural values. Services are offered to teens at home who have dropped out of school or are provided in the various high schools in coordination with school personnel. A special effort is made by the project coordinator to involve the parents of the pregnant or parenting teen in:

- Promoting parent/teen communication
- Discussing values and beliefs
- Expressing interest in their child's continuing education
- Maintaining emotional support and empathetic understanding
- Strengthening positive emotions such as love, compassion, respect, pride, and thankfulness
- Knowing and respecting the value of companionship and friendship as learned in traditional Navajo teachings and studies.

Data is collected from each client at entry (during pregnancy or with child under 10 months), at childbirth, three months, twelve months, and twenty-four months after birth. Data is managed locally at TEAM and analyzed at Utah State University.

Evaluation Model

The evaluation design requires each site to enroll adolescents and provide treatment for everyone program resources will cover. The remaining adolescents serve as a no-treatment comparison group. It is expected that 120 adolescents will have been part of the treatment group at the end of Year 3, and data will have been collected on 60 members of a comparison group. The design used is a pre-post design with data being collected upon program entrance and yearly thereafter. Although limited numbers of subjects have completed the posttesting currently, it is expected that complete data will be available for analysis on 90% of program entrants at the end of Year 3. Table 1, on the following page, presents a summary of the instrumentation, together with an administration schedule.

A total of 100 treatment and 42 control subjects have been recruited. However, data collection is ongoing, and complete data has been gathered on very few subjects. Therefore, the results of this evaluation must be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size. Another limitation of this evaluation is the higher proportion of non-White participants in the

Table 1

Summary of the Number of Administrations of Each Instrument Collected by Group

Data	Treatment	Control	Total
Demographic Data			
Entry	100	42	142
12 Months from entry	36	19	55
24 Months from entry	1	0	1
Attitude Scale			
Entry	99	41	140
12 Months from entry	33	18	51
24 Months from entry	1	0	1
Personal Feelings Scale (Rosenberg Self-Esteem & Locus of Control)			
Entry	99	39	138
12 Months from entry	32	19	51
24 Months from entry	1	0	1
Father's Questionnaire			
Entry	82	39	121
12 Months from entry	27	15	42
24 Months from entry	1	0	1
Prenatal Information and Infant Risk Index			
Birth	51	27	78
Carey Infant Temperament Scale			
6 to 8 months of age	40	22	62
Grandparent Questionnaire			
3 Months	69	36	62
12 Months	13	12	25
24 Months	1	1	2
Battelle Developmental Inventory			
Entry or 3 Months	60	29	89
12 Months	30	15	45
24 Months	2	2	4
Vineland Behavior Inventory			
12 Months	23	16	39
24 Months	1	1	2
My Baby's Day			
3 Months	48	25	73
12 Months	32	13	45
24 Months	2	2	4

treatment group, and the higher proportion of married participants in the control group.

The purpose of this evaluation was to determine if participation in the Project TEAM program significantly increased the well-being of the treatment group members and their offspring when compared to the control group. Specifically, the following null hypotheses were put forth:

1. There will be no significant difference between the mean scores of the treatment group and the control group on the second administration of the Grandparent Questionnaire.
2. There will be no significant difference between the mean scores of the treatment group and the control group on the second administration of the Locus of Control Scale.
3. There will be no significant difference between the mean scores of the treatment group and the control group on the second administration of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale.
4. There will be no significant difference between the mean developmental quotient difference scores between the first and second administrations of the Battelle Developmental Inventory for the treatment group and the control group.

The average age of the fathers in the treatment group was 19.4 (range 15 to 29). The average age of the fathers at the birth of their first child was 18.20 years (range 13 to 26). The average age of the fathers in the control group was 18.92 years (range 15 to 23). The average of the fathers at the birth of their first child was 18.66 (range 15 to 22).

Prenatal data was also gathered at birth by group. The average weight of treatment group offspring at birth was 3235.09 g (range 2268 to 4564 g). The average weight at birth for control group offspring was 2935.22 g (range 2240 to 3864 g). Child care data was also collected. The average age of treatment group offspring when this data was collected was 5.02 months (range 2 to 12 months). The average age of control group offspring was 4.48 months (range 2 to 10 months). For all subjects, 17% of the grandparents report that they babysit their grandchildren once per month, 22% twice per month, 23% once per week, 12% every other day, and 26% report babysitting their child daily.

Results and Discussion

Total scores from the first and second administrations of the Grandparent Questionnaire are presented in Table 2. There were no significant differences between the treatment group and the control on either the first or the second administration of this instrument. Data from the first and second administrations of the Locus of Control Scale and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale are summarized in Table 3. There are no significant differences between the treatment group and the control group on either the first or second administration of the Locus of Control Scale or Self-Esteem Scale.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the First and Second Administrations of the Grandparent Questionnaire by Group

	Control Group (n = 8)				Experimental Group (n = 10)			
	1st Adm.		2nd Adm.		1st Adm.		2nd Adm.	
Instrument	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Grandparent Questionnaire	102.13	6.69	97.00	9.46	100.50	9.35	104.50	7.59

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the First and Second Administrations of the Locus of Control Scale and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale by Group

	Control Group (n = 14)				Experimental Group (n = 29)			
	1st Adm.		2nd Adm.		1st Adm.		2nd Adm.	
Instrument	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Locus of Control Scale	28.21	4.69	31.07	4.16	28.17	5.31	29.38	4.87
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	38.14	4.67	41.00	4.17	39.86	7.68	41.07	7.67

Data from the first administration of the Battelle Developmental Inventory was analyzed. Developmental quotients were obtained by dividing the subject's age equivalent score by the subject's chronological age. There were no significant differences between the treatment group and the control group on any domain of this assessment instrument. Table 4 summarizes data from the second administration of the Battelle Developmental Inventory. There was no significant difference between the treatment group and the control group. Difference scores were calculated for each group by subtracting the mean score obtained from the first administration from the mean score obtained from the second administrations for each domain. T-tests performed upon these difference scores failed to reveal any significant difference between the treatment group and the control group.

In summary, there were no significant differences between the treatment group and the control group on any of the assessment instruments. Therefore, all of the null hypotheses were accepted. It is hypothesized that the failure to find any significant differences between the two groups is due to the small number of subjects that could be included in the statistical analyses.

Table 4

Developmental Quotient Means and Standard Deviations for the Second Battelle Administration by Group

	Control Group (n = 10)		Exp. Group (n = 25)		t-test Probability
Domain	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Personal-Social Total	101.67	18.76	89.24	12.17	.08
Adaptive Total	120.00	15.8	108.81	24.78	.12
Gross Motor	105.83	26.07	105.49	29.89	.97
Fine Motor	102.50	16.69	101.70	19.33	.90
Motor Total	105.00	20.86	102.43	24.55	.76
Receptive Communication	109.17	32.74	104.09	28.25	.67
Expressive Communication	101.67	17.92	98.48	16.16	.63
Communication Total	100.83	23.06	99.04	19.80	.83
Cognitive Total	115.83	14.93	112.64	21.50	.62
BDI Total	114.17	18.02	104.61	17.48	.17

1988 ACRES NATIONAL CONFERENCE

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At-Risk Forum
Presentation Abstract

AIDS EDUCATION: Implications for Rural and Small Schools

During the past five years, the increasing severity of the AIDS epidemic has made it one of the most serious health problems in the United States. Although medical researchers from the scientific community have made considerable gains in treating AIDS patients, a cure or vaccine are not expected in the forseeable future. Unlike other communicable diseases such as tuberculosis and influenza, AIDS is a "disease of behavior", resulting primarily from practicing high risk sexual and drug related behaviors. Consequently, it is imperative that preventative measures through education serve as the primary means for limiting the spread of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome among rural school age populations.

Each school day, over 14 million students attend 38,150 elementary and secondary schools in 10,385 rural school districts across the United States. Unfortunately, a significant proportion of these students may make behavioral choices that unknowingly place them at risk for contracting and spreading the AIDS virus.

With AIDS at an epidemic level and with no medical cure in sight, preventative education will constitute the catalyst that will provide adolescents with the knowledge to make mature, responsible decisions and practice appropriate sexual and drug related behaviors that will reduce their risk for contracting the AIDS virus.

Rural school districts, which comprise 67% of America's schools and educate 33% of all school children, have traditionally resisted any kind of sex education. This resistance is due, in part, to the unique geographical, social and cultural characteristics that are historically endemic to rural communities.

This presentation will focus on the critical factors that affect the successful implementation of AIDS education in Rural and Small Schools. A summary of these are listed below and include:

I. Introduction

- -Description of the NRSSC AIDS Education Program
- -Current AIDS Education Projects under the auspices of the Centers for Disease Control (CDC)

II. Characteristics of Rural and Small Schools

- -Geographical factors
- -Psycho-Social factors
- -Economic and employment trends
- -Educational service delivery problems

III. Problems Associated with Implementing AIDS Education in Rural Schools and Communities

- -Resistance to external influences
- -Limited availability of human services
- -Perceptions of "level of risk"
- -Teacher adaptability

IV. Recommendations and Strategies for Implementing Effective AIDS Education in Rural Schools and Communities

- -Resolute leadership by rural school leaders
- -Emphasis on Prevention
- -Integration within Comprehensive Health Programs
- -Dissolving Prejudice and Misinformation
- -AIDS as a "Disease of Behavior" concept
- -Developing Inservice Training for Teachers and Staff
- -Facilitating Communication between Peers
- -Promoting Positive Attitudes Towards Individual Sexuality
- -Collaborative Based Model (Schools + Community)
- -Effective use of Advisory Boards
- -Personalization of AIDS

V. Discussion

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

1:00 - 1:30 PM

Bonnie Joyce, Ph.D.
West Virginia University
504 Allen Hall
Morgantown, WV 26506

Wilfred Wienke, Ed.D.
West Virginia University
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The Importance of Rural Behavioral Disorder Teacher Competencies to Teachers and Faculty

The following study was conducted under the auspices of the Rural Behavior Disorder Project at West Virginia University. This project is part of a 3 year grant that is funded through the Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. The project is specially designed to meet 3 objectives that include 1) increasing the number of certified teachers who serve students with behavior disorders in the rural regions of West Virginia, 2) improving the quality of training to participants at both the elementary and secondary levels, and 3) retaining certified teachers who teach students with behavior disorders.

Improving the quality of training is perhaps the most important objective of this project because the successful accomplishment of the other two objectives is contingent on the success of the training objective. By adequately training the participants to teach students with behavior disorders in rural areas, it is possible to decrease West Virginia's high attrition rate of special education teachers and thereby increase the number of certified teachers currently working in the state. This is an important concern because the available data indicates that 80% of the special education teachers in West Virginia leave the state within one year of certification. This attrition rate is extremely high, even for rural areas where the rate is between 30-50% (Helge, 1983b).

The first step for improving the quality of training is to develop and validate a set of competencies that are appropriate for teachers serving students with behavior disorders in rural regions. This is not an easy task for two reasons. First, most competencies that have been developed are specifically targeted for one categorical area such as behavior disorders, learning disabilities, mental retardation, or rural populations. However, such competencies rarely combine two areas such as behavior disorders and rural populations. Second, because of the heterogeneity of rural areas, few competencies that are developed for one rural community are applicable to other rural areas (Sher & Rosenfeld, 1977). Rural communities, including fishing villages in New England, agricultural counties in the midwest, ranching communities in the Dakotas, and coal towns in Appalachia, are so diverse and complex that few teacher training competencies are amenable to all areas. It is important, therefore, to specifically design training competencies that are appropriate to the unique cultural characteristics of the state's rural regions (Moriarty, 1981; Zetler, 1980).

In order to validate the competencies, two procedures are necessary. The first procedure involves content validation and requires individuals, at whom the educational process is aimed, to identify the needed competencies by rating the importance of each proposed competency (Raymaekers & Bacquelaine, 1985; Madaus & Pullin, 1987). In the second procedure, an empirical, predictive, or concurrent link is established between each individual's rating of the importance of each competency and his or her's performance on each competency in the classroom. In the following paper, a study concerning the content validation of rural behavior disordered competencies is discussed. This is followed by a description of the proposed method for performance validation of the same competencies.

Method

Participants

Judgments regarding the importance of the competencies were obtained from two groups of participants: 1) Teachers in West Virginia who teach students with behavior disorders, and 2) faculty who teach courses in behavior disorders at West Virginia's institutes of higher education. A total of 279 BD teachers and 6 faculty members were asked to participate in the study.

Instruments

Behavior disordered and rural competencies were collected from previous research. Most BD competencies were taken from studies completed by Cullinan, Epstein, and Schultz (1986), and George and George (1987). The rural competencies were primarily taken from Barker (1986), Helge (1983), Marrs (1984), Paulson and Anderson (1987), and Wood, Webster, and Eicher (1987). Specific competencies were selected that met two criteria. First, the competency must have been previously field tested and identified as an important skill. Second, it must have been relevant to behavior disorders or rural teacher education. A total of 34 competencies were grouped into six major categories including behavior management, instruction, service delivery, consultation, knowledge, and instructional support. Direction for completing the questionnaire required the teacher to rate the importance of each competency by circling a number ranging from 1 (very important) to 5 (not very important).

A demographic data form consisting of 21 questions was also developed and attached to the questionnaire. Questions on the form were open-ended and concerned the teachers' educational and work related experiences.

Pilot Test

The questionnaire was field tested on six graduate students who were enrolled in a course at West Virginia University. All graduate students were teachers of students with behavior disorders in rural areas of the state, and were seeking a masters degree or certification in behavior disorders. The students were asked to provide suggestions for increasing the clarity of the directions, competencies, and questions that were included on the questionnaire and on the demographic data form. Based on this feedback, minor revisions were made on the questionnaire that did not affect the content of the competencies, and two additional questions were added to the demographic form.

Procedures for Content Validation

All school district superintendents in West Virginia were mailed a letter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting their permission for us to distribute the questionnaire through the schools to all teachers serving the behaviorally disordered population within their county. Of the 55 superintendents in West Virginia, 46 gave permission to distribute the questionnaire.

In the 46 counties, 279 teachers who serve students with behavior disorders, were identified by calling each director of special education and requesting a list of the BD teachers in their county. School addresses were also obtained. All identifying information was collected via telephone, except in a few cases were the county wanted to mail the list of teacher names and addresses to the project coordinator.

Faculty names and addresses were identified by calling the special education department at each college and university within the state. Faculty members who were included in general education departments, but taught at least one course in behavior disorders, were included in the study.

After identifying all possible participants, a cover letter indicating the purpose of the study, the questionnaire, the demographic data form, and a return envelope were mailed to all 279 BD teachers. A similar cover letter, a return envelope, and the questionnaire were mailed to all six faculty members. After the first mailing, one hundred twenty four teachers in behavior disorders (44%) and all faculty members returned the questionnaire. A second mailing two months later resulted in 49 additional teacher responses for a total of 173 (62%).

Results

Results of the questionnaire and the demographic data form were analyzed using the Stat View 512 program with a Macintosh microcomputer. The relative importance of each of the 34 competencies was determined by calculating the mean rating for each competency by each of the two professional groups (faculty and teachers). These results are listed in Table 1. An unpaired t-Test was conducted to identify differences between the two groups for each competency. A significant difference at the p .05 level was not found for any competency.

The relative importance of the competencies was also determined by comparing the mean rating of competencies for each of the six categories. These results are listed in Table 2. These ratings show that there was little difference between the categories. The lowest mean rating, however, occurred within the area of behavior management. This indicates that those competeincies related to rural concerns are more important for teachers serving students with behavior disorders in rural areas than are those competencies regarding ~~behavior disorders.~~ rural characteristics.

Discussion

Results of this study indicate that there is a high level of agreement between faculty members and teachers regarding the importance of all competencies. This is an important finding because it demonstrates that the rural behavior disorder competencies have content validity and thus can be tested for performance validity.

As of this writing, performance validity for these competencies has not been performed. However, it does represent the next step in the validation process. To test performance validity, performance on those competencies having content validity, will be linked to the teachers' teaching performance within the classroom to determine which competencies most contribute to quality teaching.

There are three major factors involved in the performance validation process. These include instruction, video taping of teachers' performance, and data analysis. Instruction will be provided to 9 teachers serving students with behavior disorders in rural areas. These teachers will be graduate students who are seeking certification in behavior disorders and who have completed the majority of their course work. The teachers will be required to enroll in a course that is specifically designed to include those competencies that have previously been validated for content. Competencies that are similar in content will be grouped together to form 9 different topics. Instruction will be provided through weekly seminars with each teacher serving as a group leader for one of the topics. Class discussions will be enhanced through assigned readings of journal articles representing each of the topics and through video tapes of the teachers demonstrating the competencies in their own classroom.

At the beginning of the semester, and prior to class instruction, all teachers will be video taped for 1 to 2 hours in their own classroom. Although short, these tapes will form a baseline showing each teacher's current level of teaching proficiency. Teachers then will be video taped every two weeks throughout the semester so changes in teaching performance can be documented. Segments of these video tapes that demonstrate the correct use of the various competencies will be shared with teachers at the weekly seminar. Positive feedback regarding the use of the competencies will be provided by the instructor and other teachers in the class.

In order to determine if the competencies actually contribute to improvements in the quality of teaching, it is first necessary to identify what is meant by "improvements in the quality of teaching". For the purposes of this study, teaching improvement will be identified by positive changes in students' academic and conduct behavior. To collect data regarding changes in academic performance, teachers will be required to daily administer a 3 minute probe consisting of one type of academic behavior (e.g. reading). While the student completes the probe, the teacher will record the number of correct and incorrect academic responses using an Assistant TM microcomputer. This is a portable microcomputer specifically designed to measure and record behaviors in the natural environment. Teachers will then chart the data onto a logarithmic graph so the degree of academic change can be determined. The teacher will also use the microcomputer to measure and record the frequency and/or duration of specific conduct problems exhibited by the student. This data will also be charted on a graph so changes in student performance can be calculated. Reliability of this information will be checked through the video tapes of the teachers' teaching.

Besides determining improvements in the quality of teaching, it will be necessary to collect data on the frequency and duration of the competencies used by the teachers in their classrooms. This data will be collected by analyzing the video tapes. Two trained observers will record the data independently, using the Assistant TM microcomputer, so reliability between observers can be determined. Once this data is collected, it will be correlated to improvements in the teaching performance to determine what effect the competencies had in regards to quality teaching.

Although the validation process described above may not represent a pure scientific study, it does provide some systematic efforts for providing performance validation within the natural environment. Natural studies such as this, can provide additional information regarding variables, principles, and procedures for teacher training that can be more empirically studied in the future (Kunkel, 1987).

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Table 1
Means of the Importance of Competencies for Both Groups

Competency	Teacher	Faculty
1. Implement a positive approach to classroom management, including use of behavioral strategies.	1.4	1.7
2. Provide a structured classroom environment.	1.6	1.8
3. Use a variety of techniques to conduct a behavioral change program.	1.7	1.5
4. Identify the effects of a behavior management program on the behavior of the student.	1.8	2.0
5. Implement a behavior program to enhance generalization and maintenance of behavior improvements to other settings.	1.7	1.3
6. Develop and implement protective intervention skills for managing aggressive BD students.	2.2	2.3
7. Provide strategies for facilitating acquisition maintenance, and generalization of instructed academic and social skills.	2.0	1.7
8. Provide knowledge of curriculum in a variety of subject areas.	2.2	2.5
9. Identify the effects of instructional materials and strategies on student performance.	2.5	2.2
10. Implement skills for training seriously emotionally disordered students.	2.3	1.8
11. Identify appropriate instructional software computer programs for teaching academic skills.	3.1	3.3
12. Use the computer as a data management tool and instructional system.	3.0	2.8
13. Identify alternative models for delivering services to BD students to rural areas.	2.5	2.0
14. Identify methods for recruiting volunteers to assist in classroom activities.	3.0	2.8
15. Implement strategies for teaching students in a generic, non-categorical program.	2.8	3.0
16. Demonstrate effective public relation skills with local citizens to facilitate the acquisition of resources not provided by the local school.	2.6	2.8
17. Participate in a personnel support team for sharing resources and teacher expertise.	2.6	2.7
18. Implement strategies for interfacing with the juvenile justice system.	2.5	2.5
19. Demonstrate skills for working with agencies in rural communities to facilitate cooperativeness.	2.4	2.0
20. Demonstrate skills for working with parents of rural students.	1.9	1.7
21. Demonstrate skills for working with other teachers and school personnel to facilitate mainstreaming efforts.	1.6	1.8
22. Demonstrate skills for effectively training paraprofessionals.	2.2	2.2
23. Demonstrate skills to effectively interact with law enforcement/juvenile justice system.	2.4	2.3
24. Demonstrate awareness of the legal implications regarding the education of BD students.	2.3	2.7
25. Demonstrate knowledge of the judicial system.	2.6	3.2

Table 1 (continued)

Competency	Teacher	Faculty
26. Recognize and manage specific medical conditions effecting rural students with behavior disorders.	2.4	2.3
27. Identify characteristics specific to rural cultures, mores and customs.	2.4	1.3
28. Provide skills for facilitating appropriate school bus behavior for students with behavior disorders.	2.2	1.3
29. Demonstrate methods for building a local BD teacher support system in the rural environment.	2.5	2.0
30. Develop and implement strategies for coping with the remoteness to services and other resources.	2.5	1.8
31. Identify procedures for improving the physical environment.	2.5	1.8
32. Develop and implement time management skills.	2.2	2.0
33. Ability to teach independently without supervision.	2.0	1.8
34. Demonstrate ability to acquire resources not provided by the school.	2.2	2.4

Table 2
Mean Ratings for Each Category

Category	Mean Rating
Behavior Management	1.75
Instruction	2.64
Service Delivery	2.65
Consultation	2.29
Knowledge	2.27
Instructional Support	2.16

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Productive Partnership: A Community Need Is Met By An Elementary Enrichment Program

Bright students need to develop their full potential. The parents of these students are concerned that their children may not receive sufficient opportunities to facilitate this potential development. In addition, rural settings further limit the potential for opportunities and increase parental concern. The need for a collaborative effort between colleges and communities to meet the need of bright children is evident. This paper will describe the process by which a summer elementary enrichment program was initiated, organized, implemented and evaluated.

An important role colleges and universities need to take is that of facilitator for cooperative efforts between themselves and their communities. In the fall of 1985, community members approached Dr. Steinmiller with the request that a program for elementary gifted and talented children be developed. This community interest met with college openness, and the process began. The Summer Elementary Enrichment Program was the result of this cooperative endeavor.

The first step in the process was to thoroughly review the literature about other such programs. The review produced very few program examples. Viable suggestions and ideas were taken from the review and were later incorporated into our program.

The second step in the process was to invite the director and a faculty member from an existing program to visit campus, thus providing a model from which we could develop our porgram. We were able to use their suggestions, letters and timeline to help us get an informed start.

Because of the collaboration, we were able to avoid some basic problems with the sound advice. One helpful suggestion was used to set the tuition level. The tuition for the pilot program in the summer of 1986 was $150 for the three week program. We increased the tuition to $165 for the 1987 summer program because we added features such as t-shirts, pictures, and graduation certificates.

Other helpful suggestions included identification of the admission and selection criterion. Timelines for sending out information, hiring teachers, etc. were realistically established. Letters and other documents that were generated by the model program helped us prepare the forms that we would need. A list of guest speakers that had been successful and topics that had been effective for the model were generated.

There were some differences between our program and the model. One difference was the time of day to have the program. The model program had its classes in the afternoon. After consulting with our interested parents, we decided that to best serve our students the program would meet in the morning from 9:00 AM to Noon, although we maintained the three-week time frame of our model program. Another difference we made in our program was to have three one-week classes, rather than meeting the same class for three weeks. This meant that each student would be age grouped and those groups would take a different course with a new teacher each week. A teacher's aide would stay with the group to give the students a sense of continuity. Another difference was one of philosophy. The model program's primary purpose was teacher training. Our primary purpose was students centered. These changes were the result of collaborative decision-making.

The key to the success of this program was the quality teacher working with the bright students. Choosing the "right" teacher was essential. It was also very important to get the teachers to feel that their contributions were very much a part of the program. This sense of ownership let the teachers buy into the program which was found to be most important. Planning sessions and lunch meetings at program expense furthered the professional sense of contribution for the teachers.

To help insure this success, the director worked to establish and maintain an environment with a high trusting and sharing relationship with the teachers and aides. The "ownership" of the summer enrichment program was shared by the teachers. They knew they were the key to the program, and it fed their creative energies. The role of the director at the organization level is to construct budget, attract students, hire effective teachers, coordinate planning, and troubleshoot problems.

Once the program started, the role of the director became one of laison and problem-solver. Again, the trust level between director and teacher was important. The director was visible in the morning to talk to all the teachers, aides, parents and students about the day's plans. Double and triple checking not only improved communication channels and provided a sense of support for all parties, but problems were found soon enough to have back up systems implemented. For example, since the program was in the summer, rooms were reserved in addition to the primary rooms, in case air conditioning problems developed. Backup vans were available if primary vans had problems. Also backup field trips and lessons were ready if primary trips had to be cut short or rescheduled.

The director was available during the run of the daily program to help keep plans on schedule. At the closing of each day, the director and teachers were present as parents arrived to take their children home. The complete visibility of program personnel kept communication immediate and effective. A positive and professional relationship was established and maintained.

The program was evaluated in a number of ways. Two evaluation instruments were sent home at the end of the program. One to parents; one to students. The feedback from these instruments was very positive. Also, the students were also asked to evaluate each class at the end of the week. These evaluations were open ended allowing students the opportunity to offer their suggestions and ideas.

Other data that pointed out the success of the program were unsolicited verbal feedback from parents and students. The fact that no student dropped out of the program or was reluctant to come in the morning is important to note. The number of parents interested in the program increased tremendously as can be seen from the program growing from out twelve student pilot program in 1986 to the forty-five students program of 1987. This program, by the way, reached its goal of forty-five students without formal advertizing. Reputation was positive.

The Summer Elementary Enrichment Program has been very successful. In this day and age, when it is essential that we meet the needs of all our children, a summer program that is a joint effort between community and college can be very beneficial to our rural "bright" students.

SCIENTRIFIC: 1987

July 20 - August 7, 1987

Dr. Georgine Steinmiller
Dr. Robert Steinmiller
Co-Directors

WE STUDY OURSELVES

DR. ANNETTE DANIEL

Monday - Body Structure & Function

9:00 - 9:30	Orientation
9:30 - 10:30	Discussion - Experiments - Film (observe cells under microscope, study skeleton, make posters, experiment on how the body uses oxygen, take fingerprints)
10:30 - 10:45	Snacks/Outdoors
10:45 - 11:30	Resource Speaker
11:30 - 12-00	Reading Time

Tuesday - Human Senses

9:00 - 10:00	Discussion - Experiments - Films (tasting party, vision testing (telebinocular) hearing and vision experiments)
10:00 - 10:15	Snacks/Outdoors
10:15 - 11:00	Optometrist
11:00 - 12-00	Swimming

Wednesday - Nutrition

9:00 - 9:45	Lecture - Discussion - Films (experiments testing for sugars, starches and fats, study of vitamins, food preservation)
9:45 - 10:00	Snacks/Outdoors
10:00 - 12:00	Field Trip

Thursday - Personal/Public Health

9:00 - 10:00	Lecture - Discussion (care of the body, teeth, etc., effects of drugs)
10:00 - 10:15	Snacks/Outdoors
10:15 - 11:00	Films - Speaker
11:00 - 12:00	Swimming

Friday - First Aid & Safety

9:00 - 10:15	First aid and safety procedures
10:15 - 10:30	Snacks/Outdoors
10:30 - 11:30	Demonstrations
11:30 - 12:00	Farewell Party

SUPERMARKET SCIENCE 1987
MS. MOLLIE MOORE

Monday - Introduction

9:00	Introduction to week of Supermarket Science
9:15	Group Experiment: Grocery Gems
9:45	AC Science Lab: Demonstrations
10:45	Snack
11:00	Group Experiments: Maple Magnifiers, Jar Germinations
11:30	Introduction to Classroom Activities
11:40	Individual Small Group Experiments

Tuesday - Observatory

9:00	Introduction to Field Trip: Cereal Super Stars
9:15	Field Trip: Observatory
10:45	Snack
11:00	AC Pool to Swim

Wednesday - Science Labs

9:00	Group Experiments: Salad Bowl Reflections, Solar Sips, Peas Puzzles, and Molecules
9:30	Guest Scientist
10:00	Snack
10:15	Group Experiments: Coffee Chromotography, Crazy Cans
11:15	Introduction to Yeast-Beastles
11:30	Individual and Small Group Experiments: "Paste" -ry Predictaments
11:45	Visitor from Field of Science

Thursday - Bakery

9:00	Introduction to Field Trip
9:15	Ideal Bakery: Tour of Yeast-Beastles
10:45	Snack
11:00	AC Pool to Swim

Friday - Edible Science

9:00	Video
9:20	Salad Group Experiments: Salad Dressing Rockets and Cannons
10:30	Incrediable Edible Science Experiments
11:00	Video Week's Experiences and Young Scientists
11:30	Video: "Supermarket Science" Guests Welcomed

WILDLIFE

MS. ANN SMART

Monday - Habitats

9:00 - 9:30	Orientation
9:30 - 10:15	Characteristics: Color Crazy
10:15 - 11:00	Habitats: Oh Deer!
11:00 - 11:20	Habitat Lap Sit
11:20 - 12:00	Habitracks

Tuesday - Adaptation

9:00 - 9:20	Adaptation: Surprise Terrarium
9:20 - 10:00	Adaptation Artistry
10:00 - 10:20	Quick Frozen Critters
10:20 - 11:00	Adaptation Artistry
11:00 - 12:00	Swimming

Wednesday - Tracks

9:00 - 10:00	Tracks: Field Trip
10:00 - 12:00	Tracks: Plaster-of-Paris

Thursday - Food Chain

9:00 - 9:30	Food for Survival
9:30 - 10:30	Owl Pellets
10:30 - 11:00	Food Chains
11:00 - 12:00	Swimming

Friday - Endangered Species

9:00 - 9:45	Here Today Gone Tomorrow
9:45 - 10:15	Film: Endangered Species
10:15 - 11:00	Here Today Gone Tomorrow
11:00 - 12:00	Wrap-Up

Dr. Georgine Steinmiller, Director

Music and Movement
July 21-25
Teacher: Dr. Annette Daniel

MONDAY, JULY 21

9:00 - 9:30	Registration
9:30 - 10:00	1. Introduction 2. Sesquicentennial slides 3. Music slides
10:00 - 10:15	Snacks
10:15 - 11:00	Songs, games, activities
11:00 - 11:30	Music slides
11:30 - 12:00	Games

TUESDAY, JULY 22

9:00 - 9:45	Guest speaker - Stephanie Isaacs, dulcimer
9:45 - 10:30	Songs, games activities Work on program & mural Make musical instruments
10:30 - 10:45	Snacks
10:45 - 11:15	Music, Arkansas slides
11:15 - 12:00	Games

WEDNESDAY, JULY 23

9:00 - 9:30	Music, Arkansas slides
9:30 - 10:30	Work on program/mural
10:30 - 10:45	Snacks
10:45 - 11:15	Grigsby House - organ
11:15 - 12:00	Games

THURSDAY, JULY 24

9:00 - 10:00	Resource Speaker - Linda Langford
10:00 - 10:15	Snacks
10:15 - 10:45	Slides, music
10:45 - 11;30	Practice program, games, mural

FRIDAY, JULY 25

9:00 - 10:30	Practice program Set up scenery
10:30 - 11:30	Present program Videotape program Snacks/Refreshments

The Art and Beauty of Arkansas
July 28-August 1
Teachers: Ms. Connie Gordon and Ms. Phyllis Byrd

MONDAY, JULY 28 - Place: Grigsby House

9:00 - 9:15	Introduction
9:15 - 9:30	State History
9:30 - 9:45	Arkansas Traveler
9:45 - 10:30	Activity - Quilting & History
10:30 - 10:45	Refreshments
10:45 - 11:15	Resource Person - Peggy Meitzen
11:15 - 12:00	Swim

TUESDAY, JULY 29 - Place: Grigsby House

9:00 - 10:00	Activity - Quilting
10:00 - 10:15	Game
10:15 - 10:30	Refreshments
10:30 - 11:00	Activity - Berry Inks - History
11:00 - 12:00	Complete Projects & Games for Those Who Finish

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30 - Place: LRC

9:00 - 9:30	Resource Person - Roberta Brown
9:30 - 11:00	Activity - Cemetary - Stone Rubbings Refreshments
11:00 -12:00	Swim

THURSDAY, JULY 31 - Place: Science Building

9:00 - 10:00	Activity - Natural Dying - History
10:00 - 10:30	Hike
10:30 - 10:45	Refreshments
10:45 - 12:00	Activity - Honeysuckle Wreaths

FRIDAY, AUGUST 1 - Place: Grigsby House

9:00 - 10:00	Activity - Art - to be decided
10:00 - 10:15	Set up Display for Parents
10:15 - 11:15	Swim
11:15 - 12:00	Picnic Lunch

Frontier Foods
August 4-8
Teacher: Ms. Mollie Moore

MONDAY, AUGUST 4

9:00	LRC 203: Introductionto Frontier
9:15	Grigsby House: Fireplace
10:15	Grigsby House: Snack
10:30	Grigsby House: Filmstrip "Food"
10:45	LRC 203: Introduction to Classroom and Activities

TUESDAY, AUGUST 5

9:00	AC Van - Experiment Station to Milk Cows
10:15	Broadwater Farm to Gather Eggs
11:00	AC Pool to Swim

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 6

9:00	AC Van to Spring Mill Museum
10:30	LRC 203: Churn butter and mold activities in classroom

THURSDAY, AUGUST 7

9:00	LRC 203: Ura Fae Kramer - Canning and preserving
9:25	Faculty House - Taffy Pull and
9:45	"Frontier Clothing" by Blake Ogilvie

FRIDAY, AUGUST 8

9:00	LRC 203: "Nutrition" by Myra Butler
9:20	AC Kitchen: "Chicken" by Mark Smith
9:45	LRC 203: Make Corn Cakes Activities in Classroom
11:30	Culmination - Visitors Welcome - Freshly Ground Coffee Brewed and Served

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

1:35 - 2:35 PM

Adapted Physical Educators in Appalachia

Michael W. Churton

Appalachian State University

Running Head: ADAPTED PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to identify a preservice training model in the area of adapted physical education. The model prepares undergraduate students to teach in Appalachia. Appalachia is a depressed economic and geographically dispersed region of the country. Handicapped children are underserved and often do not receive appropriate physical education programs. Specific training and employment problems are identified. Strategies for training teachers to provide services in rural areas are presented which may prove transferable to other special education areas.

Adapted Physical Educators in Appalachia

The need for qualified special education teachers in rural school systems is well documented in the literature (Sontag & Button, 1980; Helge, 1984). Buxton (1983) identified inherent problems relative to service delivery in rural areas including communication among dispersed educational staff, access to instructional, diagnostic, and informational materials; support for field personnel; time limitations; travel; scheduling; and sparsity of staff. Helge (1983) identified several problemmatic areas of concern including personnel turnover transportation, community structure, politics, geography communications, interagency cooperation, understaffing, teacher competencies, and several others. Physical education for the handicapped although cited as the only curriculum area in the EHA definition of special education, has been generally overlooked or neglected in rural areas (Churton, 1983). With few training programs addressing adapted physical education , the quality of services and competencies of teachers providing services are in question. This paper addresses a preservice training model in adapted physical education to serve the economically depressed and rural region of Appalachia.

Appalachia

Appalachia is that part of the Southeast United States characterized by extreme poverty conditions, dispersed geography, and isolated rural communities. Over 154 counties within the states of Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia constitutes what commonly is referred to as the Southern Highlands. The physiographic elements of the Appalachian Mountains including piedmonts, Blue Ridge Mountains, ridges, valley zones, and the Appalachian plateau are represented in the regionalization scheme. Population density by county ranges from 11 to 629 persons per square mile. Per capita income ranges from $2,949 to $8,194 while percentage of household below the poverty line ranged from 4.2% to over 40% with only 23 counties out of 154 less than the national average. More than 81% of the counties had less than 10% of its 25 year old citizens graduating from college when the national average reported more than 17% (Lovingood & Reiman, 1985).

Ecological Training Model

The ecological training model-revised (Churton, 1979) is a noncategorical resource training model. The model defines the change agent as the teacher which suggests implications for the training of these teachers. The nature of the model is on improving academic, behavioral, and specifically psychomotor deficits through individualizing a child's curriculum and other learning experiences. The results remediates the discordance between the child and his or her educational and social environments. Figure 1 illustrates the role of the change agent in the ecosystem.

Insert figure 1 here

The teacher is trained to effect not only the child directly but the sources of influences which may create psychomotor discordance. Service delivery in rural settings require teachers to have the competencies to effect change directly with the child or indirectly by resolving programmatic discordance. Potential sources of influence upon the psychomotor education of the child includes other teachers (special, regular, and physical education), related service personnel (therapists, volunteers, and educational assistants); administrators including principals, and coordinators; and community agencies and parents. The change agent will need the competencies to effectively work with each of these groups of influence if the child is to receive appropriate physical education services.

Curriculum Training Model

Program graduates undergo four years of personnel preparation with an additional two years of provisional certification whereupon they must demonstrate specific instructional competencies. The ecological model-revised (Churton, 1979) requires a program graduate to complete general college , professional development requirements, and a minor in Appalachian studies. The program consists of 122 semester hours including student teaching in a rural program.

General College:

The general college supervises and administers academic advising, student academic programs, and the liberal arts requirements need for graduation. All first year students are enrolled in general college and must complete the following requirements prior to entering a college program.

English	6sh.
Humanities	12sh.
Social Sciences	12sh.
Biology and physical Sciences	4sh.
Mathematics	4sh.
Physical Education	2sh.

Appalachian Studies Minor (ASM)

Within the general college requirements, students select at least 18hrs of interdisciplinary coursework within the Appalachian Studies Minor (ASM). The coursework emphasizes rural cross cultural, educational, economic, and political realities of

Appalachia. The competencies developed through this model enables the teacher to address the discordance within the child's ecosystem. Coursework includes:

1. Appalachian Enthnography
2. History of the Appalachian region
3. Seminar: Southern Appalachian Religion
4. Community and Regional Planning in Appalachia
5. Southern Appalachian Personality
6. Appalachian Politics
7. Internship in Appalachian Studies

Professional Education Core:

All students graduate with a degree in the Department of Health Education, Physical Education, and Leisure Studies and are required to obtain an "A" certification. Core requirements include:
Professional Education Requirements (29-30 s.h.)
Physical Education Core (51-54 s.h.)
Option in Adapted Physical Education (18 s.h.)
Teacher Certification (20 s.h.).

Option in Rural Adapted Physical Education

The option in adapted physical education is specially designed to address service delivery in a rural settings. The option emphasizes modified teaching approaches and considerations for Appalachia and other rural areas. Coursework includes:
Orientation to Human Exceptionalities (3sh)
Games for Children (2sh)
Adapted Physical Education and Recreation (4sh)
Program Development in Adapted Physical Education (3sh)
Methods and curriculum in Adapted Physical Education (3sh)
Internship (3sh)

Field Based Experiences:

The coursework required in the adapted physical education option and in the appalachian studies minor emphasizes a field based concept to service delivery. Students are placed in rural educational and service settings that enable them to transfer classroom knowledge into real world practicality. Approximately 10-15 hrs per week are spent interacting with handicapped children, teachers, and administrators. Several sites are selected including public schools, day care centers, group homes and independent living centers, and various camp programs. The summer period is spent in a 10 week day program operated by the Appalachian Center for Experiencial Living, Inc. which is a nonprofit organization for the developmentally disabled and the aged.

Conclusion

Although adapted physical education has been cited in the Education of the handicapped Act since its inception, the field of special education has failed to comprehensively address the psychomotor needs of handicapped children. Undergraduate personnel preparation programs seem most appropriate for service delivery in rural areas due to economic conditions and retention. The program at ASU prepares students to deliver adapted physical education services in Appalachia which is not only isolated geographically but is economically depressed as well. This product therefore fills a personnel shortage need with a qualified teacher at a entry level pay scale.

As part of this program a regional resource center has been established for consultative, informational, and instructional services to the Appalachia area. Teachers placed by this program and others will receive the continued benefit of updating instructional skills and strategies and maintaining a direct link with the University. The center will provide a needed service that will open the communication lines between service providers and consumers throughout the region .

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Introduction

Physical Education was the only direct service specifically mentioned with curricular definition in Public Law 94-142 (i.e. 121A.14-121A.14(B)(2)-121A.307). Federal mandates necessitated that all handicapped children be afforded an appropriate and individualized physical education program. Further, this direct service must be provided by qualified personnel and be implemented in the least restrictive environment (not always the mainstream) in accordance with an IEP that is predicated upon a valid and reliable assessment of the handicapped child's unique physical education needs. To this extent special physical educators and parents, even in rural/remote areas, have a vested legal right to actively participate in the psychomotor development and learning of all handicapped children. These children have the legal right to quality physical education experiences provided by qualified and competent professionals as they receive with other direct special education services. Since the discipline of physical education was federally charged with the physical education of all handicapped children, it is a legal, educational, and moral imperative that special physical educators be trained in this crucial area of human development and learning. Teachers and schools alike can also expect similar rights and responsibilities under the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1986 (i.e. PL 99-457).

Special Physical Education in Montana's Public Schools

Currently the State of Montana does not have any guidelines for the delivery of special physical education services to its over 15,000 handicapped children. The state has not delineated the relationship between direct services and related services with respect to the psychomotor learning of handicapped children. Montana has yet to even determine the extent and appropriateness of special physical education programs except to say that "Physical education services to be provided" [MT L & R 13.7.1 (2)]. Neither does the state have a direct or add-on teacher certification to insure qualified special physical education personnel in the state's public schools. In essence, due to the rural nature of Montana, any teacher who possesses a teaching certificate is viewed by the state to be a qualified special physical education teacher. Consequently the State of Montana has readily accepted maindumping (not mainstreaming) of its handicapped children as an appropriate solution to the legal mandate of providing appropriate physical education experiences for all of it's handicapped children. The fact that such practices are not legally consistent to appropriate assessment or placements in the least restrictive environment are of little consequence to even the monitoring and onsite evaluations conducted by the state educational agency and its personnel.

Since Montana's state education agency will not assume responsibility for the physical education of its handicapped children, unqualified special education classroom teachers and regular physical education teachers are reluctantly charged by local school administrators to assume that responsibility. Parents are relegated to accept decisions about the physical education of their handicapped children which may be illegal, inappropriately premised, and professionally inaccurate to say the least. In some instances physical education services are "waived" by the local school so that the handicapped child receives nothing other than a nonexistent statement of services on the IEP. In the majority of instances, however, the extent of the individualization of physical education serviced on the IEP is merely a yes or no, if even mentioned.

According to the Eighth Annual Report to Congress, Montana uses a non-categorical service model to provide special education to 15,480handicapped pupils in over 700 local education agencies with 320 being one, two, or three teacher schools. There are 760 special education teachers employed in the state which is a 21% decrease since 1976. The teacher/pupil ratio in special education is 1:20. Montana received $4,161,151 in state grant awards in special education which ranks it 43rd in the nation.

This represents a very high teacher pupil ratio and ranks Montana's special education teachers as 37th in the nation with only 13 states having teachers with a lighter instructional load. It is also quite common in Montana for special education services to be provided to all types and levels of handicapped children by one teacher who also likely has to provide other academic services and extra-curricular activities as well.

Montana employs 8 FTE of physical education teachers for 15,480 handicapped pupils which represents a teacher/pupil ratio of 1:1935. This represents only .0021% of employed special physical personnel in the country. Further, not all of those professionals have the necessary professional qualifications and competencies established by the American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance necessary for their teaching field. At best estimate less than 25% of Montana's special physical education personnel are professionally qualified. More adversity permeates this situation in that there are no professionally qualified personnel in special physical education in the state education agency to oversee or direct such programs. Thus, teachers in Montana have no professionally legitimate or qualified resource in which to obtain direct assistance in the provision of physical education to the state's handicapped children.

Additional data about educational aspects in providing special physical education to handicapped children in rural/remote Montana are as follows. These include, but are not limited to:

a. The population density for the State of Montana is 5 persons per square mile;
b. There are over 700 school districts in the state which is almost double that of the State of Illinois which also has almost ten times the population;
c. 46% of school districts in the state are one, two, or three teacher districts K-12. Of that percentage, 38% are one teacher school districts K-12;
d. The state educational agency is having state guidelines for adapted physical education developed exclusively by professionally unqualified adapted physical education specialists;
e. The state educational agency has assigned compliance, monitoring, staff development, supervision, and administration of statewide adapted physical education to a special educator whom does not have such as a primary duty nor possesses minimal AAHPERD competencies for adapted physical education;
f. The state educational agency does not require its state supervisor of physical education to directly oversee and supervise statewide efforts and activities in adapted physical education;
g. There are 20% more related service personnel in physical and occupational therapy employed in Montana than direct service personnel in special physical education;
h. There has been a 66% increase in the employment of instructional aides in the provision of special education with a 21% decrease in teachers since 1976;

i. The state education agency reported that it has no shortage or personnel needs for special education teachers in the following areas: LD-SI-MR-ED-HH-MH-OI-OHI-VH-DB;
j. The state education agency reported that it needs only 5 more non-categorical special education teachers in the entire state;
k. The state education agency reported that it does not need any more special physical education personnel and that a teacher/pupil ratio of 1:1935 is acceptable for compliance with PL 94-142;
l. There has been a 37% increase in related services by school psychologists while there has been a 21% decrease in direct service special education personnel since 1976;
m. The state education agency reported that Montana's top personnel needs for special education throughout the state are;
    1. 5 non-categorical special education teachers
    2. 3 school psychologists
    3. 3 Speech pathologists
n. The state education agency now refuses to endorse personnel preparation training grants in adapted physical education;
o. Each school district in the State of Montana is largely funded by local mil levies requiring annual voter elections;
p. The standard per pupil cost for pupils in Montana's public schools provided by the state is approximately $450 per year; and,
q. There is no district power equalization in terms of local school district funding throughout Montana.

Transdisciplinary Personnel Preparation at the University of Montana

Recruiting physical and special educators to become qualified special physical education personnel to interdisciplinarily integrate physical education services in rural schools has demonstrated potential for facilitating and enhancing rural special education interventions. Through three federal personnel preparation projects the University of Montana Physical Education-Handicapped Program has established a transdisciplinary training program to increase the quality and number of qualified special physical educators available to the rural areas of Montana. Importantly this training focused on leading in the development and installation of professional competencies in special physical education that makes available interdisciplinary manpower to develop and implement educationally relevant special physical education activities. Thus, training of personnel to provide special physical education services in rural schools of Montana was largely focused around the following contextual goals. These included:

1) Interdisciplinary recruitment of training personnel;
2) Data based and metacognition methodologies for personnel training;
3) Transdisciplinary design of instructional strategies;
4) A preservice integrating inservice model; and,

5) University coursework premised on universal excellence.

As a result of the severe adverse economic conditions pervasive to rural public education in Montana, the training of personnel in special physical education necessitated significant federal financial assistance. Federal assistance also served the ancillary purpose of facilitating cooperative efforts between the University of Montana and the rural schools, professionals, and administrators which have tended to drift further and further apart since passage of PL 94-142. It is safe to say that without federal financial assistance from the U.S. Department of Education, personnel training in special physical education for rural Montana would be literally non-existent.

Interdisciplinary Recruitment and Training of Personnel

The graduate program at the University of Montana in physical education-handicapped is a 54 quarter credit hour Master of Science degree. The degree was developed in 1983 and was fully operational by the 1984 Fall Quarter. The distribution of coursework in terms of percentages allocated to various aspects of the degree program are as follows:

A) 22% in advanced core physical education personnel preparation experiences;
B) 22% in specialized adapted physical education personnel preparation experiences;
C) 22% in advanced special education personnel preparation experiences;
D) 22% in direct applied research activities in special physical education; and,
E) 12% in highly structured and specialized practica experiences with handicapped clients providing special physical education direct services.

The program has a well balanced distribution of personnel preparation experiences both out of design and necessity. Although highly specialized experiences in special physical education may in fact be desirable, such was not feasible if the University of Montana was to be responsive to its rural constituency. The following data about graduate personnel trained in Montana indicate the need to have a well balanced personnel preparation program that interdisciplinarily appropriate to rural areas. These included, but are not limited to:

A) In the past four years (i.e. 1984-1988) the program has trained 29 graduate students. The undergraduate background of those personnel were as follows;

1. 31% special education (N = 9)

2. 28% other field (e.g. speech, psychology, physical therapy, etc.) (N = 8)
3. 28% regular physical education (N = 8)
4. 10% regular education for classroom (N = 8)
5. 3% special physical education (N = 1)

B) 89% have not had a single introductory undergraduate course in special physical education prior to undertaking graduate study in that field;

C) 89% had no prior instructional experience in even attempting to teach handicapped children in physical education;

D) There was a 100% placement rate for graduates in their desired employment settings. The breakdown of placements was as follows:

1. 41% special education teaching
2. 21% private sector/other fields
3. 14% post graduate education
4. 10% regular physical education teaching
5. 7% regular education classroom teaching
6. 7% special physical education teaching

E) 49% of personnel did not seek or desire to live or work in rural areas. The geographic areas in which the specially trained special physical education personnel were employed was as follows:

1. 38% rural community area of more than 10,000 population outside a SMSA
2. 28% urban area
3. 21% suburban area
4. 13% remote rural area

The true irony of the University of Montana's interdisciplinary personnel preparation in special physical education was that the field of special physical education is the educational area that was least benefitted. It was evident from the data that personnel with specialized preparation in special physical education were extremely desirable as professionals. It was unfortunate, however, that less than 10% ever went into providing the direct service of special physical education in the rural areas for which they were specifically trained. The reasons for this unfortunate situation were based upon:

A) The insulting salary level for teachers in rural schools;
B) The complete failure of the U.S. Department of Education to enforce the physical education requirements of PL 94-142 throughout the country; and,
C) The complete failure of Montana's state education agency to recognize, let alone enforce, the physical education requirements of PL 94-142.

Data Based and Metacognition Methodologies for Personnel Training

The data based tasks and competencies for the University of Montana Physical Education-Handicapped program were developed and implemented according to the AAHPERD guidelines of professional preparation for personnel involved in physical education and recreation for the handicapped. Candidates were required to meet five data based tasks evidenced by competency in a minimum of 258 of 361 personnel preparation training objectives. The five tasks in which the data based competencies were evaluated were:

1. To analyze the physical and motor capabilities of a variety of handicapping conditions;
2. To plan, organize, implement, and evaluate individualized educational programs of physical education with a variety of handicapping conditions;
3. To develop a working knowledge and understanding of the interdisciplinary team approach involving both school and community agencies for the provision of programs and services to the handicapped.
4. To interactively participate in selected field experiences commensurate with specialized needs and interests; and,
5. To develop the candidate as a special physical education professional resource for cooperative curriculum development and implementation by rural local education agencies.

In addition to the data based tasks and competencies, all personnel were trained in a data based physical education curriculum for severely handicapped children. This curriculum was the basis of all direct service delivery practicum experiences in rural settings in preschool through secondary settings. The curriculum had five data based sequences which included: (1) placement; (2) baseline; (3) instruction; (4) post-test; and, (5) maintainence. This was accomplished by a quarterly eight hour metacognition inservice. The purpose of the metacognition was to develop an awareness, knowledge and skill via a transdisciplinary manner for special physical education in a variety of education personnel.

The quarterly metacognition was designed as an alive, later occurring comprehensive and specialized process of awareness, judgement, products, and skills in special physical education.

The metacognition had five data based dimensions of personnel preparation. These included:

1. Purpose = "why" of content in special physical education;
2. Values = "so what" of content in special physical education;
3. Central Message = "what" of content in special physical education;
4. Validation = "support" of content in special physical education; and,
5. Application = "how" of content in special physical education.

The data based tasks and competencies as well as the transdisciplinary metacognition process were integrated into all practicum experiences. All practica settings were in rural special education programs and ranged in level from preschool through secondary. There was also a weekly on-campus special physical education teaching academy in addition to the structured off-campus settings. In all situations, training personnel were required to develop physical education data based IEPs for severely handicapped children as well as provide direct services in a rural setting to all types of handicapping conditions. During the course of the academic year, each candidate was required to spend a minimum of 432 hours in direct service delivery of special physical education in rural settings preschool through secondary levels.

Transdisciplinary Design of Instructional Strategies

Since it was widely accepted that teachers providing special physical education in rural areas would be from a multitude of educational backgrounds and abilities, the instructional strategies needed by them would have to be of a transdisciplinary design. For these purposes, transdisciplinary referred to providing non specialized personnel specific instructional skills in special physical education. Whereas, interdisciplinary referred to the sharing of rubric non-specialized instructional physical education activities that did not require specific skill on behalf of personnel.

To facilitate the transdisciplinary skill acquisition in special physical education training personnel were intensively involved with highly specific instructional strategies based on the psychomotor development and learning of severely handicapped children. Complimenting data based and metacognition training methodologies was a structured data based psychomotor learning curriculum for severely handicapped learners preschool through secondary. It was through this curriculum that trainees developed IEPs in special physical education and implemented individualized data based instruction in rural educational settings. The data based instructional curriculum contained the following elements to allow specialized physical education instructional strategies for handicapped children to be delivered in a transdisciplinary manner. These included:

1. Ambulatory or wheelchair elements;
2. Preschool - Elementary - Secondary components;
3. Goal areas of:
    - a. Body mechanics
    - b. Body knowledge
    - c. Locomotion
    - c. Spatial accuracy
    - d. Health & Fitness
    - e. Sensorimotor control
4. Specific performance objectives within each goal area;
5. Specific instructional skill levels of each performance objective;
    - a. Pre-functional skill level
    - b. Functional skill level
    - c. Age appropriate skill level
    - d. Proficient age appropriate skill level
6. Purpose of the special physical education lesson;
    - a. Placement
    - b. Baseline
    - c. Instruction
    - d. Post-test
    - e. Maintenance
7. A specific teaching research instructional model;
    - a. Cue
    - b. Model
    - c. Physical Assistance (3x)
8. Specific instructional data points for precision teaching;
    - a. Simple to complex dependent upon skill level;
9. Specific verbal cue for the individual performance objective;
10. Specific materials necessary for instruction of the individual performance objective;
11. Necessary criterion for successful performance by handicapped learner;
12. Environmental cue to establish an appropriate instructional environment; and,
13. Appropriate interdisciplinary instructional activities.

A Preservice Integrating Inservice Model

As noted the needs of Montana to support the efforts of special education through special physical education were congruent with the needs of other rural states. Montana, however, additionally represents significant characteristics of remoteness which greatly discourage special physical education specialists from seeking employment or education there. Frequently, handicapped populations in Montana schools were too few in number to even allow the employment of a regular physical education teacher let alone an adapted specialist. Unfortunately, in those same circumstances, educators were likely to be well intended, but lacked any guidance or technical assistance. Due to a severe lack of experience and personnel preparation at the rural locale, teachers did not receive orientation, on-the-job training, interpersonal support, or other means of recognition or compensation relative to special physical education. Maintaining this problem was the fact that population densities throughout Montana were inadequate to support agencies of a sufficient size to establish effective and comprehensive special education without significant federal fiscal support.

What then appeared to be needed was a transdisciplinary system of personnel preparation which (1) efficiently increased the quality of preservice skills in special physical education; (2) rapidly increased these competencies from preschool through secondary levels; and, (3) established highly structured preservice practica and field sites in rural schools as an interactive component of the existing local school district special education program. What was additionally a vital contributor to this model was the availability of special and regular physical education teachers who were willing to be inserviced in special physical education by preservice personnel while assisting in the delivery of such services in their respective schools. The magnanimous attitude of employed rural teachers to accept technical assistance by an ongoing daily inservice process by graduate student preservice personnel was essential to paradigmical success. Without it the preservice integrating inservice model, as well as the provision of direct special physical education services to over 300 handicapped children in rural Montana would have been unlikely. Without a doubt, practicing and employed rural special education teachers were instrumental to the preservice training of rural special physical educators. Further our evaluative data suggested that these same teachers:

1. Preferred direct special physical education services as opposed to the related services of physical and/or occupational therapy;
2. Were willing to accept technical assistance from preservice personnel;
3. Were willing to accept technical assistance from the University;
4. Were willing to actively participate in transdisciplinary inservice training;
5. Were willing to teach special physical education on an equal professional basis in their classrooms with university preservice personnel;
6. Were willing to actively participate in University service programs in special physical education; and,
7. Were willing to enter into contractual interagency agreements to assist in preservice training and competencies.

The Preservice integrating inservice model in special physical education was seen as involving activities that were implemented by interactive management decisions between rural schools and the University of Montana. The overall design of the model was based upon three components and subsequent training activities. These included:

1. Components of personnel preparation in special physical education;
   a. Teaching of graduate students
   b. Teaching of undergraduate students
   c. Training University faculty to direct practica experiences

    - d. Training LEA personnel to direct on-site field experiences
2. Direct service components of personnel preparation in special physical education;
    - a. Training preservice personnel in specialized instructional strategies for special physical education
    - b. Providing technical assistance and support for directors of on-campus practica
    - c. Providing technical assistance and support for LEA personnel in on-site field sites
    - d. Providing direct services via IEP to handicapped children in rural programs
    - e. Continuing refinement to develop best practices
3. Operational components of personnel preparation in special physical education
    - a. Ongoing and comprehensive evaluation and feedback system
    - b. Responsive management systems for effectiveness and efficiency of operation

University Coursework Premised on Universal Excellence

The notion of universal excellence was the motivation driving the University of Montana Physical Education-Handicapped Program. Unfortunately, at the time this concept in rural areas was still more vision than substance. In 1985, just as the U.S. Department of Education was beginning to identify specific training needs for rural areas in special education, the University of Montana was predicting that there appeared little evidence that special physical education in rural areas would be a future reality unless rural personnel preparation programs were premised in universal excellence. Thus, the tactics and strategies for trainees in special physical education at the University of Montana were predicated upon the researched and accepted notion of universal excellence.

The training competencies of the University of Montana Physical Education-Handicapped program were highly indicative of any quality personnel preparation graduate program in special physical education. Unquestionably it's universal excellence design was capable of developing and facilitating special physical education skills for professionals that are applicable as well as deliverable to any educational setting whether such be remote, rural, isolated, suburban, or urban. Perhaps the most significant aspect of the University of Montana's personnel preparation was it's ability to faithfully replicate training in special education based on universal excellence instead of merely training in segregated rural settings that did not have the capacity for high level transference and adaptability.

The University of Montana's Physical Education-Handicapped program also offered an immediate and more distant promise. That being, the realization of one's special education training potential depends upon the degree to which it can transdisciplinarily train rural special educators in the advantages of universal excellence as well as avoiding the problems of segregation from urban counterparts. The University of Montana's training competencies were oriented toward quality personnel preparation practices with rural educators standing much to gain by developing their own individual universal excellence literacy through situational analysis and adaptability to the rural environments in which they interacted. Unlike urban peers, the University of Montana did not have the luxury of falling back on significant existing resources and easily accessible training practices in special education. Rather, the University of Montana was compelled to unequivocably pursue universal excellence in training with a delicate balance of on-going and responsive evaluation of such that was proactive to the rural constituency served.

Further, rural areas could not be viewed within a single dimension. In short, even among rural areas in the Rocky Mountains there were tremendous differences with regard to factors of affluence, distance, isolation, and social organization. The University of Montana thereby proactively trained special physical educators through the interpolation of: (1) universal excellence; (2) strategies of transfer and adaptation based on individual rural situational analysis; and, (3) responding by the tactic of "resident generalist" as proposed by Williams (1983). It was through this approach to training, however, that the University of Montana, exercised caution so that its efforts in rurality did not result in the loss of variables, which in general, contributed the greatest amount of variance to effective special physical education practices in any setting.

Summary of Successful Training Strategies for Rural Areas

As was previously noted, the great success of the University of Montana's Physical Education-Handicapped program of personnel preparation was exclusively due to federal fiscal support of that endeavor. Without increased and significant funding by the U.S. Department of Education to rural colleges and universities for training of special educators, rural areas can continue to expect tremendous difficulty in attracting, employing, and retaining personnel for special education. This is even more true for the area of special physical education.

For example, out of the estimated available $15.05 million dollars available in FY 1988 for the training of personnel for education of the handicapped, only 3.3% ($500,000) was originally allocated to the preparation of personnel to work in rural areas (CFDA 84.029J). The quality of rural special education was directly dependent upon the quality and availability of personnel. The allocation of a mere 3.3% of estimated available funds is absurd when considered in the context that approximately 25% of the nations school districts are rural in nature. What is even worse for rural special physical education training was the fact that there are only three such programs in the country receiving specific federal fiscal assistance in this field. Those institutions (i.e. Appalachian State University; University of Montana; University of New Hampshire) are very isolated geographically so as to severely inhibit even reasonable amounts of integrative best practices in rural special physical education.

In any event, the University of Montana was and thoroughly remains extremely grateful to the U.S. Department of Education for it's fiscal commitment during the past four years allowing it to be the first federally funded personnel preparation program in rural special physical education in the country. To poorly analogize Barbara Mandrell's hit country song, "the University of Montana was rural when rural wasn't cool" in training special physical educators. Strategies that were found most successful in that rural personnel preparation were:

1) Recruitment of personnel through national exchanges and/or journals were very unsuccessful. The most productive procedures for personnel recruitment in order of productivity were;
   a. Local and regional newspapers
   b. On-campus advertisements in classes and on bulletin-boards
   c. The campus newsletter and/or newspaper
   d. Referrals from other University faculty
   e. Personnel meetings with potential students at scholarly meetings
   f. Flyers sent to regional Universities and Colleges.

2) In establishing rural school districts as training/service practica sites school administrators need to feel comfortable and confident that University personnel are not "watchdogs and whistleblowers" for the U.S. Department of Education;

3) Rural schools need and require substantial technical assistance in the development and implementation of IEP's for special physical education. Frequently schools will not

serve as practica sites unless University trainees and personnel implement direct services to handicapped children that can be used for state compliance and monitoring purposes. The entire programs were usually developed, implemented and evaluated exclusively by university personnel which is both extremely time consuming and demanding;

4) Personnel preparation in rural special physical education cannot hope to become fully operational within the first year of a three year project. Recommendation for federal projects was as follows;

a. Year 1 = Awareness of special physical education
b. Year 2 - Acquisition of knowledge in special physical education
c. Year 3 = Demonstration/implementation of special physical education

5) Rural schools will not implement appropriate physical education experiences for handicapped children merely by the threats and mandates of Public Law 94-142. Rural schools need to be convinced of its academic value and how the university and its provision of direct services can prevent law suits as well as be accomplished at no cost to the school district;

6) Travel costs in training grants cannot be negotiated on a similar basis to that calculated for suburban/urban costs. In many instances travel costs are 5-10 times that encountered in non-rural areas;

7) Rural schools need incentives to participate in training project activities other than just providing personnel assistance or direct services. Since budgets in rural schools are usually miniscule, the project must provide incentives (e.g. materials, supplies, equipment loans, etc.) to school personnel if they are to agree to serve as practica sites;

8) Training projects in rural areas must be allowed to operate on budgets that may be considered cost-ineffective in urban areas. Rural projects cannot hope to train as many personnel as it's non-rural counterpart,. Further, there are frequently not available an appropriate number of practica sites within a reasonable travelling distance; and,

9) Rural projects must be based on the concept of universal excellence if their graduates are going to be competitively employed, even in rural areas.

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COMPETENCIES FOR ADAPTED PHYSICAL EDUCATORS:
Implications for Rural School Personnel

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INTRODUCTION

With the current unprecedented thrust for reform in education among legislators and citizens, it is evident that there is a movement to re-examine regular and special education and all its phases (Bell, 1982; Sontag, 1983). Clearly related to the issue of reform is a lack of consensus in the United States on teacher certification (Sontag, 1983). The recent attention on the quality of education and teachers in today's school has encouraged many states to implement programs designed to ensure teacher competency. These plans typically involve identifying teacher behaviors appropriate for all teachers (Sass-Lehrer and Wolk, 1984).

Public Law 94-142 has had a dramatic impact on physical education teacher preparation programs (National Association of State Directors of Special Education, 1975). The impact directly relates to teacher education and the competency of those responsible for educating the handicapped in a physical education setting.

As early as 1964, Hooley indicated that professionals needed to take immediate action in establishing competencies for physical educators working with the handicapped. Ersing and Wheeler (1971) concluded that much diversity characterized training programs for adapted physical education teachers, and that it was imperative that consistency in training programs be established. De Pauw (1981) indicated that many physical educators are unprepared to teach handicapped children emphasizing the need for specialized training in the area of physical education for the handicapped.

Professional preparation programs in adapted physical education have existed for 20 years. Presently, over 200 colleges and universities throughout the United States offer some coursework in adapted physical education. Over 50 colleges and universities offer specialized programs at the undergraduate, masters, or doctoral levels (De Pauw, 1979).

In recent years, some states have developed standards and certification procedures for teachers of adapted physical education. Although there is not universal agreement among state education officials, administrators, and professionals, there is a growing interest in identifying the competencies that adapted physical professionals should possess (Fait and Dunn, 1984).

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to compare college and university professors with adapted physical education specialists in their perception of the importance of a specified set of professional competencies.

The investigator reviewed the literature pertaining to the professional preparation of special education and adapted physical education teachers. The literature indicated very little information specifically related to professional preparation in adapted physical education.

The major measurement instrument, the Adapted Physical Education Competency Questionnaire was adapted from the Guidelines for Adapted Physical Education (Hurley, 1981). The guidelines include those competencies required for adapted physical education generalists and specialists. The guidelines are mentioned in several adapted physical education texts as the most recent attempt to identify adapted physical education competencies (Seaman and De Pauw, 1982; Fait and Dunn, 1984; Auxter and Pyfer, 1985). Development of the guidelines began in 1977 when a 13-member Task Force on Adapted Physical Education was appointed. The Task Force was comprised of members of the Adapted Academy, the Therapeutic Council, and AAHPERD Unit on Programs for the Handicapped. This body was charged with developing competencies for the preparation of adapted physical educators. (Hurley, 1981)

Utilizing the Guidelines for Adapted Physical Education (Hurley, 1981) and Bloom's Taxonomy (1967), the investigator constructed the Competencies for an Adapted Physical Education Specialist Questionnaire. The questionnaire contains 59 competency statements arranged in 20 categories which correspond with the original categories in the guidelines.

Competency Categories	Number of Competency Statements
BIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS	
1 Kinesiology	7
2. Physiology of Exercise	4
3. Physiology of Motor Functioning	3
SOCIOLOGICAL FOUNDATION	
4. Sport, Dance and Play	3
5. Cooperative/Competitive Activities	2
6. Social Development	1
PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS	
7. Human Growth and Development	2
8. Motor Learning	2
9. Self-Concept and Personality Development	3
10.Management of Behavior	2
HISTORICAL-PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS	
11. Historical Development	2
12. Philosophical Development	4
ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION	
13. Program Planning	2
14. Screening and Assessment	3
15. Evaluation	2
CURRICULUM PLANNING, ORGANIZATION, AND IMPLEMENTATION	
16. Program Planning	6
17. Individual Instruction	3
18. Program Implementation	3
19. Safety Considerations	2
20. Health Considerations	3
TOTAL	59

The respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement on a Likert-type four-point scale with each statement. A level of importance for each statement was assigned on the basis of the following four-point scale:

1 - Very Important
2 - Somewhat Important
3 - Not Too Important
4 - Not At All Important

The study's population utilized two groups of adapted physical educators from the United States. One group consisted of college and university professors who have made significant contributions to the area of physical education for the handicapped. Sixty individuals met this criteria and were selected for the college and university professor group. The second group, the adapted physical education specialists, were selected from the National Directory of Adapted Physical Education Personnel (Megginson, 1984). A systematic sample yielded 274 adapted physical education specialists.

Surveys were sent to the 60 professors and 274 specialists. The professors returned 56 (93%) surveys and the specialist returned 182 (66%). All data were collected in the Spring of 1986. The Chi-square statistic was used to treat the data. A .05 level of significance was chosen for this study. Phi and Cramer's V tests were utilized on the appropriate data to determine the degree of association between the professors and specialists. Means and standard deviations were computed for the competency statements.

The major findings of the study are as follows:

1. Twenty of the 59 (34%) competencies were found to be significant at the .05 level.
2. The professors rated 88 percent of the competencies with a mean value range of 1.00 to 1.75.
3. The specialists rated 90 percent of the competencies with a mean value range of 1.00 to 1.75.
4. The greatest dissimilarity between the professors and specialists occurred in the Foundatioin areas of Sociological, Psychological, and Assessment and Evaluation.
5. The results lend validity to the competencies within the Guidelines for Adapted Physical Education.
6. There appears to be consensus between the professors and specialists regarding the importance of the adapted physical education competencies utilized in this study.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study and within the limits of the investigation, it was concluded that the perception of the professors and specialists were similar even though 20 of the 59 competency statements were found to be significant. This conclusion is supported by the professors and specialists high ranking for the competencies included in the questionnaire. It appears there is agreement between the professors and specialists as to the importance of the competencies for adapted physical educators included in this study.

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WHAT IS A RURAL SPECIALIST?

The challenges of teaching in isolated rural communities in Alaska prompted the development of a special program to meet the multiple demands of the setting. Teachers, superintendents and village elders have known for years that the rural teacher plays a much larger role than simply being the supervisor of instruction. In addition to instruction, the teacher must be sensitive to the cultural milieau of the village and possess the skills to address students' struggling with the harsh realities of cultural transition.

The rural Alaska teacher personally feels the impact of the highest suicide rate, the highest alcoholism rate and the highest drug and child abuse rate in America. The overwhelming nature of these problems cannot be ignored when attempting to develop good educational programs. For teachers to be effective in rural settings they must be ready to address the needs of the whole child. In order to avoid teacher burnout and constant turnover, training institutions must develop unique programs built upon collaborations with colleagues in other disciplines.

A rural specialist is an experienced teacher who resides in a rural setting and has acquired a complement of skills to meet the varied personal and professional demands of the job. These skills include special education competencies, individual and career counseling ability and an indepth understanding of the substance abuse issues that impact so many of the students. The University of Alaska Anchorage has developed such a program as part of the master's program in special education. Candidates are currently being sought for the new program through a recruitment procedure that emphasizes rural nominations and primarily seeks Native Alaskan participants.

Rural teachers are able to remain in their home communities while pursuing the degree via a distance education program utilizing integrated telecommunictions. The UAA offering are coordinatd with the existing off-campus rural special education courses and with on-campus summer school classes. Special offerings to address substance abuse are being jointly planned with the University's Center for Drug and Alcohol Abuse and local agencies in rural communities. Skill development in individual and career counseling will be offered through both intensive summer practica and off-campus courses. These courses represent the coordinated effort of the UAA Guidance and Counseling Program and the Special Education Program.

The purpose of this presentation is to describe the rural specialist program and the distance delivery model. Participants who attend this session will be encouraged to participate in a lively discussion related to special education in America's largest rural state. The challenges encountered in rural communities in Alaska are similar to rural teaching demands around the country. The solutions described in this presentation offer alternatives to others states and communities. The rural specialist program is a federally funded project in the first year of operation.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

2:55 - 3:55 PM

Alternative Homework for the Mildly Handicapped Elementary Student: Try Gaming!

Presented at Annual National American Council for Rural
Special Education Conference
February 26, 1988
Monterey, California

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Running Head: Homework

Alternative Homework for the Mildly Handicapped Elementary Student: Try Gaming!

Introduction

Homework as part of the schooling experience is generally accepted and expected. This is true despite the inconclusive evidence found in the literature regarding its usefulness (Friesen, 1979; Freisen, 1978; Harding, 1979; Paschal, Weinstein, and Walberg, 1984). Because of the supervision and guidance required of many mildly handicapped students to complete academic tasks, one may further question its effectiveness for this population. Some parents, however, wish to have homework for their children to see their progress first hand and to feel a part of their child's learning by providing needed assistance to them at home. In other school districts, homework may be mandatory for certain grades. Homework can be provided in a variety of formats. This workshop will demonstrate the use of teacher and parent made instructional games to practice basic skills as an alternative to traditional homework assignments.

Homework in a gaming format may provide additional practice for a student in a motivational manner. The child with learning difficulties in a specific skill area often receives additional time on that skill within the normal instructional programs. Therefore, instead of having to spend one hour on a weak area, that student may be spending one hour in a regular classroom, one hour in a resource room, and his parents are providing additional time in this area during homework. Altering the home activities by changing them to game formats may provide a child additional practice but in a more motivating fashion. Furthermore, it allow for enjoyable family involvement with that child in a structured instructional manner.

Background Research

Teacher preparation programs often devote little time to the area of homework. It is often assumed that new teachers will have a feel for what is appropriate. This may not be true.

Lee and Pruitt (1979) have designed a homework taxonomy looking at it as either for practice, preparation, or extension of what is being taught in the classroom. It may be advisable to define these options here.

Practice refers to exercises to reinforce newly learned skills. This is frequently such activities as working arithmetic problems, memorizing facts in history, etc. Research shows that these activities are questionable when assigned in mass to all students in a class (Freisen, 1979, Austin, 1979). Homework can be effective only when it is individually prescribed and matched to the background and learning ability of the students (LaConte,1981). This is an important point to remember for the mildly handicapped students who may be mainstreamed into regular classes.

Preparation homework is where the student seeks out information to come prepared for the lecture the following school day. This often involves reading chapters of the text or gathering information from the library, newspapers, etc.(LaConte, 1981). LaConte (1981) believes that to be effective teachers must set guidelines for the students by telling them exactly what to read and look for. Teachers must also be aware of the length or difficulty of a reading passage. A study has shown that teachers often underestimate the time it takes for students to complete the reading that is assigned (Scaglione, 1974).

The third type of homework is extension homework. These are ones which encourage a child to apply, synthesize, research or study a topic in a personal way. These are frequently long term activities. As LaConte (1981) points out, it focuses on "production" rather than "reproduction". Products are usually student initiated.

The workshop will focus on alternatives for practice and extension assignments that can be individualized for the mildly handicapped child. They will help to personalize the assignments for these students.

Research just completed by the presenters polled about 500 rural parents of fifth grade students about their views on homework. The findings resulted in varied comments. Some parents were very much in favor of homework. One parent commented, "The best teachers assign the most homework in relationship to the grade level. In my opinion, any teacher third grade or higher who never has homework assignments isn't worth the taxpayers money". Other parents are against homework. Some of these parents reported opposite views on homework such as this "Homework has destroyed what little family time we used to have as a family". When these parents were asked how much time the students spent on an average each day doing homework, the mean was 39 minutes. When the parents were asked how much time should be spent on homework daily the mean of their responses was 34 minutes. This does indicate that they are not totally against homework but would prefer somewhat less than is being assigned.

Friesen (1978) reviewed surveys, questionnaires and polls asked of parents and students regarding homework between the years of 1916 and 1978. He found that there were generally favorable views on homework. Both students and parents generally believed homework "helps them get better grades".

The interesting aspect about homework is that research is inconclusive in this respect. Friesen (1979) also looked at the results of 24 research studies on the effectiveness of homework to improve academic learning from 1923 to 1976. He found that the data neither supported nor refuted the effectiveness of homework.

Harding (1979) also summarized results of research from 1900-1979. No clear cut evidence was found proving the effectiveness of homework in improving pupil performance. Paschal, Weinstein, and Walberg (1984), however, have found in their analysis of 15 studies between the years of 1966 and 1981 that 85% of the studies favored the treatment groups that received homework. One can see that no definite conclusions regarding the necessity of homework can be drawn from the research thus far.

Therefore, teachers must weigh the value of the homework assignments they are giving students, especially those with mild handicaps. Can we expect parents to teach these children with unique learning needs? We are making the assumption that the parents have an educational level or the availability of resources to complete the assignments at home. This may not be the case. Why not turn homework into a fun activity for the entire family?

Implementation of Gaming

Three options exist for implementation of gaming formats for homework: a) Wait for parents to ask how they can assist their child at home and introduce the idea. b) Sell the idea to mainstream teachers by providing them with materials that will allow for easy implementation of"game-like" homework. c) Design parent workshops to sell parents on the idea and give them opportunities to create their own games and materials to take home.

In the rural areas where many families live far from public library facilities where parents could seek their own resources, these parent and student made materials can fulfill a parents' need to contribute to the skill development of their handicapped children in an enjoyable fashion. The parent night idea presents a pleasant and less stressful way for a parent to get involved in his child's education instead of the usual IEP meetings.

Providing sufficient practice and review of new skills to the point of mastery for mainstreamed mildly handicapped children is difficult. Gaming can be used to provide these children the additional practice necessary to achieve mastery through the learning games. Regular class teachers will be willing to participate when they see the simplicity of preparing and updating these game-like materials.

Planning a Parent Night

1. List the skills in which your students need additional practice.

2. Prepare or locate sample materials that would be appropriate for the students' age and learning needs.

3. Gather the supplies necessary to create the learning materials. Be sure to have enough of everything to allow the parents and their children to complete the materials that night. This would probably include tagboard, scissors, markers, tape, glue, pictures, stickers, rulers, stencils, blank flashcards, something to use as game markers such as lids, painted rocks, colored

pieces of tagboard, etc.

4. Solicit the participation of other teachers and aides in the school system. You will need about one assistant for every three sets of parents and children. They can help the parent select the materials appropriate for their child and assist in their preparation. One of the adults may be asked to laminate or apply clear contact paper to the items as they are completed.

5. Be sure to have duplicate copies of the directions for each game available for the parents to take home. Large zip lock type plastic bags are good for materials with many pieces.

6. Make a list of each of the materials prepared by each parent and child. This will allow you to send home new question cards, game pieces, etc. as the child progresses in the skill area during the year. You may add to the difficulty of the games by adding more pieces.

7. Leave the parents some preprinted tips to go along with the games. Landers (1984) recommends that parents learn to acknowledge their childs' answers as true effort, avoid unnecessary corrections and remind the child of his potential to complete the activities. Parents must be guided into developing realistic expectations for their children. Wesson, Wilson and Madlebaum (1988) have also designed means to adapt games to make them allow for high student response rates. These ideas have been integrated into the learning games that will be demonstrated here.

There will be success in the gaming experiences if teachers select appropriate materials and parents have reasonable expectations.

Summary

The handouts you will receive will get you started on the road to having your own parent/student learning materials night. Enthusiasm for learning is contagious. Gaming has an inherent motivational value for most children. These activities were particularly effective in a low income community where homes were lacking in educational materials. You can get your parents actively involved in their child's practice of basic skills without destroying the at home family times. Everyone can participate and it is fun for all.

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CREATIVE INTERAGENCY PROJECTS IN RURAL FLORIDA... MEETING THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE FUTURE

OVERVIEW:

Florida is a state of widely diverse demographic areas, each with its own unique characteristics and political boundaries. The problems encountered by its school districts in providing education and related services to their handicapped populations are as varied as the communities they serve.

Recent federal and state of Florida legislation has emphasized interagency collaboration as the most humane and cost-effective method of maximizing the varied services needed by both, the young special needs child and also the young adult disabled population.

The Gadsden Prekindergarten Handicapped Interagency Project and the FDLRS Gateway Transition Project are two examples of Florida initiatives to emphasize the interagency concept of service delivery. The success of these projects has grown out of the demonstrated needs of rural school districts to develop creative strategies for provision of services in areas with limited resources.

PURPOSE:

This session will:

1. provide an overview of Florida's initiatives to utilize interagency councils to provide education and related services to a varied population of special needs infants and children, and to young adults with disabilities
2. present various interagency models which have developed in rural areas to meet single and multi-district needs
3. describe how interagency councils are playing a lead role in assisting rural districts in meeting the mandate of PL. 99-457
4. describe how a multi-district interagency council is assisting in the development of a supported employment model project

TYPES OF PRESENTATION:

The session will utilize a panel discussion and lecture format will overhead transparencies and a display table.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 26

4:00 - 5:00 PM

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33 West 42nd St., Rm. 620N
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STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING THE TRAINING AND PERFORMANCE OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

The passage of P.L.94-142, mandates established by state legislatures, and decisions of various court systems more than a decade ago created new imperatives requiring expanded and improved services for children and youth with special needs. These actions have exerted profound pressures on public schools and other local service providers in rural areas throughout the country, and they have brought about ongoing demands for increased personnel and differentiated staffing patterns that have not been met.

The increased demands on the field and more complex administrative and programmatic duties assigned to teacher and other professional personnl have caused policy makers to seek other human resources. Increasingly they have turned to paraprofessionals as one method to supplement the administrative and instructional functions of teachers and other support staff (Pickett, 1986).

Despite the fact that paraprofessionals have become major contributors in the delivery of special education services in rural areas representing a cross-section of demographic and geographic regions and settings, they are not systematically trained to perform the duties assigned to them nor are teachers and other professionals prepared during their pre-service training to work with paraprofessionals, to supervise them, to evaluate their on-the-job performance, or to assess the ways in which improved utilization will improve their capacity to provide more effective individualized programs (I.E.P.s) in the least restrictive environment (L.R.E.).

Role definitions for professional and paraprofessional personnel are in a state of transition. A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, prepared by the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986), is one of the major efforts that has looked at the changing and expanding roles of teachers. The taskforce argued that among other roles, teachers should be viewed as managers of multiple human resources including paraprofessionals, parents, volunteers from the business community and other non-academic arenas and college interns.

Analysis of the daily functions of teachers finds that a major portion of their time is spent on program management and administrative tasks. Teachers are now placed in the role of coordinating and managing information provided by the members of the inter-disciplinary teams responsible for developing individualized education plans (IEPs) for students with special needs. Once the goals and objectives of the IEP have been established, implementation of the plans become the responsibilities of the teachers. As part of their program management duties they: assess the development and performance levels of individual students and consult with colleagues in order to design and carry out the programs, assess the impact of the teaching, and change the programs based on student progress (White, et al, 1981; Heller, et al, 1982).

In addition to these programmatic duties, their responsibilities now include supervising and coordinating the work of paraprofessionals and other support staff. They must: 1) set goals and plan for other adults in the classroom, 2) schedule and coordinate the activities of professional support and resource personnel, 3) direct and assign tasks to paraprofessionals, 4) use problem solving techniques to improve the collaborative efforts of the team; 5) assess on-the-job performance of paraprofessionals, and 6) develop techniques and procedures to improve the skills and performance of paraprofessionals (Pickett, 1986.)

Over the last decade, the National Resource Center for Paraprofessionals conducted a series of task analyses, observations and other activities in a variety of educational program settings, demorgraphic and geographic areas across the country. We have found that, while paraprofessionals still run the audio visual equipment, assist teachers in routine recordkeeping and monitor playgrounds and lunchrooms, there have been major changes in attitudes among policy makers and educators toward what are appropriate roles for them to assume. Their roles are no longer viewed as being primarily clerical. Instead, they are becoming technicians and specialists who are integral members of the educational team. They participate in all phases of the instructional process and support and extend the programmatic and administrative functions of teachers (Pickett, 1986).

Of equal importance for policy makers, program planners and trainers/educators are the dramatic changes in the deployment of paraprofessionals in related service areas. For example, they serve on crisis intervention teams to meet the needs of students with emotional and other behavioral disorders. Both rural and urban school systems now rely on speech/communication aides to support the work of speech therapists; and several states are exploring the feasibility of employing physical and occupational therapy aides to meet the growing demands for these services. They also provide therapeutic and adaptive PE services in both school and community based programs. And as more states move to provide early-intervention services and pre-school programs for infants and young children with special needs, they are including paraprofessionals personnel as members of the team that delivery direct care for the children and training for parents and other family members. Further, they supervise students and other clients in off-campus work assignments and they work as health care and case management assistants in many public school systems.

While state and local school systems have made significant progress in providing increased community centered educational services for students with special needs over the last 20 years, there are many second "generation problems" that remain. One of the most critical is the shortfall of personnel to meet the needs of all educational and related services programs. To continue to bring about improvement in every facet of the instructional process and other direct services, all of the "players" need to be prepared to carry out the tasks they are assigned to perform - including paraprofessionals.

Among the strategies that policy makers in rural areas can use to develop standardized and systematic training for paraprofessionals are: 1) developing and implementing a system of self instruction in consultation with the supervising teacher; 2) developing cooperative training efforts with other community based service delivery systems based on generic skills paraprofessionals require to work in the broad range of education and human service delivery systems; 3) developing programs in collaboration with two and four year colleges that use combined personnel and fiscal resources for planning and providing easier access to post secondary education as one method to reduce the shortages of teachers.

Designing and implementing all of these programs require time and commitment from personnel in different levels and jurisdictions of the service delivery systems.

Self instruction in consultation with the teacher can work. However, administrators at the building and district level must offer support to the instructional team by providing instructional materials and guidelines to the teacher/paraprofessional team to facilitate the process; scheduling specific times for teachers and paraprofessionals to meet for reviewing the material, and encouraging the teacher to develop on-the-job coaching procedures to re-enforce the knowledge and skills the paraprofessionals accquire.

Developing cooperative training efforts that cross service delivery system lines requires the active participation of decision makers from all agencies who can sign off on the plan as well as program specialists and staff developers. To be successful these joint ventures must be built on analyses and comparisons of the tasks and functions paraprofessionals perform in the various agencies. Training sessions can be designed that recognize the generic skills paraprofessionals need to be effective members of any service delivery team. Examples of some of these skills are: understanding the rights and entitlements of people with disabilities, understanding the legal and ethical responsibilities of paraprofessionals, observing and recording data about client/student behaviors, teaching functional age appropriate skills, behavior management techniques and more. Developing the curriculum is easy by comparison with the tasks involved with coordinating and scheduling the training. There are pay offs, however, that make the efforts worth while. The development of a cadre of skilled committed staff in areas that have sparse population and large geographic areas.

And finally, there is a critical need to develop effective training/education mechanisms that will ensure career mobility for entry level personnel that will enable them to advance through career ladders and join the ranks of their professional colleagues after they complete post secondary requirements for teacher certification. Paraprofessionals offer policy makers in local school districts and teacher educators a unique human power resource, particularly in rural areas, because of a combination of characteristics that many of them share: They are usually long-term residents of a community or region. Their roots are in the community and they understand local problems and philosophies of service delivery based on personal knowledge and cultural heritage. Because of their on-the-job experience, they are aware of the pressures attributable to working with students with special needs and they have demonstrated their commitment to both special education and the district. These and other factors make them ideal candidates for entrance into teacher education programs (Pickett, 1987). By working together institutions of higher education and agencies can develop proactive strategies to recruit paraprofessionals who have demonstrated skills and interest in becoming teachers. They can also develop programs they recognize on-the-job experience and other needs of adults who may live far away from central campuses.

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REFERRAL, INTERVENTION, AND INSTRUCTION FOR CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIFFERENT CHILDREN WHO MAY BE HANDICAPPED

By Catherine Collier, Ph.D. 1988

In an era in which the concept of "pluralistic society" is most evident within our schools, the education of minority students becomes an important concern to even the most experienced educator. Teachers in all grade levels have witnessed a tremendous increase in the heterogeneity of students' performance due, to a great extent, to the increase in ethnic and multicultural students enrolled in today's schools. Of equal or greater concern to many classroom teachers is the unparalleled challenge of contending with limited resources while providing quality instruction to students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds who exhibit learning and behavior problems.

Rural teachers with limited resources are more and more confronted with the task of providing appropriate education to exceptional students, as well as addressing the added elements of language and culture issues as these pertain to handicapping conditions.

Key points in the identification and instruction of these students are:

1) their initial referral, usually by classroom teachers ill prepared to meet their special needs,

2) early intervention at the pre-staffing level to address linguistic/cultural and acculturation needs as well as separate these from possibly exceptional learning and behavior problems, and

3) appropriate and accurate placement within special services.

Over the past decade, the disproportionate referral (both over and under referral and placement of minority children) has become a matter of increasing concern to educators in public schools. This population is referred to as culturally and linguistically different exceptional children.

It is evident from a review of previous research that the interrelationship of cultural and educational characteristics is central to answering questions about appropriate identification, referral and instruction of culturally and linguistically different exceptional children. It is also evident from a review of these studies that the results of acculturation research have not been considered in this interrelationship.

There is ample evidence that cultural, linguistic, and psychological changes occur among populations which affect their interaction with mainstream American society (Berry, 1970; Witkin & Berry, 1975). Knowledge about the characteristics and needs of culturally and linguistically different exceptional children is incomplete without a knowledge of the effects of these changes, i.e., acculturation, upon this population. This is especially true in that the effects of acculturation are similar to and may be confused with some of the behaviors for which children are referred to special education.

Children in need of special assistance will continue to be identified and placed in special education classrooms. It is important that all of their special needs be identified, delineating those characteristics of exceptionality from those characteristics of acculturation, for appropriate services to be provided.

A recent research study into this area has examined the interaction between educational and cultural/linguistic characteristics of culturally and linguistically different children experiencing acculturation in rural school systems. The study examined and identified which of these characteristics differentiated children referred for special education placement from nonreferred culturally and linguistically different children. The results and conclusions of this study provided guidance in developing appropriate training for school personnel in the identification, referral and instruction of the culturally and linguistically different exceptional population in the public schools.

The sample for the study consisted of elementary students who were identified as culturally and linguistically different by two rural school districts and enrolled in bilingual/ESL programs in the districts prior to the 1984-85 school year. The school districts were asked to provide information on 100 students randomly selected from their bilingual/ESL programs. The sample consisted of 105 bilingual children, 51 of whom had never been referred to special education and 54 of whom had been referred to special education. The referred students included 27 referred but not placed and 27 referred and placed in special education within the last two years. The sample was drawn from district wide bilingual/ESL programs serving grades K-6. Students became eligible for services from this program by meeting national and state criteria of cultural and linguistic difference. All of these students were considered of limited English proficiency to some extent and of cultural backgrounds other than mainstream American.

The students were compared on 15 acculturation and education variables selected on the basis of an extensive review of the literature. The acculturation variables were selected from research into the effect of various cultural and linguistic factors upon the successful acculturation of culturally and linguistically different students in this country (Alder, 1975; Juffer, 1983; Padilla, 1980). The education variables were those regularly considered in the referral and placement of any child in special education (Algozzine & Ysseldyke, 1981; Knoff, 1983; Smith, 1982).

Composite scores for the two major variable categories, acculturation and educational achievement, were also considered. A scale for rating relative degree of acculturation was developed based upon the variables and research cited above. A copy of the scale is attached in the appendix.

A review of the literature led to the expectation that within a randomly selected group of school children, those referred and/or placed in special education would differ significantly from those not referred or placed, particularly in regard to achievement and ability. In previous studies, the cultural and linguistic differences between mainstream and minority became an additional factor in whether or not a child was referred and/or placed. In this study, however, all of the children were from the same cultural and linguistic background. As they were also from the same nontransient rural socioeconomic background and age range, it was expected that the children should be relatively homogeneous in regard to cultural and linguistic variables, with some differences between individual children. In theory, pre-investigation expectations were that referred and nonreferred children would differ on their education profile but not on their acculturation (cultural and linguistic) profile.

Contrary to theoretical expectations, the referred and nonreferred groups did not statistically significantly differ on their education profiles but did differ on their acculturation profiles. Findings also indicated a strong interaction and correlation between particular acculturation and education variables. Although 'academic' concerns were cited as the primary reason for referral, there was no statistically significant difference in achievement test scores in any content area. A significant interaction also was found between minority enrollment and educational achievement.

Differences were found between referred/not placed and referred/placed subjects on selected variables of LAU category, language proficiency, and acculturation. There were no significant differences for any education variable between these referral groups.

Differences were found between nonreferred and referred/placed subjects on the acculturation variables of LAU category, language proficiency, minority enrollment, and acculturation. There were no significant differences between non-referred and placed groups on any educational variable other than degree of teacher concern.

A significant interaction was found between minority enrollment and educational achievement. Nonreferred subjects had higher educational achievement in schools with high minority enrollment while placed subjects had higher educational achievement in schools with low minority enrollment.

A significant relationship also was found between years in bilingual programs and educational achievement. Nonreferred subjects with more years of bilingual instruction had better educational achievement than nonreferred subjects with fewer years of bilingual/ESL instruction. This relationship between high educational achievement and years of bilingual instruction was significant for the entire sample population. This was also found to be true for language proficiency. A significant relationship was found between language proficiency and educational achievement for all groups.

A significant relationship was also found between years in the United States and educational achievement. Referred but not placed subjects who had been in the United States more than four years were significantly higher in educational achievement than those who had been in the United States fewer than four years. The relationship between more years in the United States and level of educational achievement was statistically significant for the population as a whole. A significant relationship also was found between level of acculturation and educational achievement for all groups. The population as a whole performed better on educational achievement the higher the level of acculturation.

It may be concluded from these findings that culturally and linguistically different children in rural schools continue to be disproportionately referred and placed in special education, both over- and under-referred/placed. It may be concluded further that the psychodynamics of acculturation are clearly a factor in referral and placement and must be considered in the identification and instruction of culturally and linguistically different children with special needs.

The finding that nonreferred culturally and linguistically different children apparently did better educationally in schools with high minority enrollment may be due to differences in the quality of the available alternative programs, including bilingual instruction. It may also be related to the presence of role models, improved self concept, etc. There is also the possibility that CLD children are over-referred in schools with low minority enrollment while under-referred in schools with high minority enrollmient. Expectations may be lower in high minority schools or teachers may be less willing to risk censure for referring minority children with learning and behavior problems.

Prior research indicated that differences in educational achievement and overall ability may not be as significant in referral as other education variables, such as reason for referral (Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1981). The results of this study indicate that rural culturally and linguistically different children referred to special education do not appear to differ significantly from those not referred in achievement and ability but do differ in degree of teacher concern. The implications are that regular classroom teachers need improved training in the identification of learning problems among and appropriate instruction for the culturally and linguistically different. Training in alternative programs and intervention alternatives for concerned teachers is clearly needed. A copy of the alternative intervention process developed as a result of this study is attached in the appendix. Training in this process is currently being provided by BISECT at the University of Colorado.

Research has clearly demonstrated the significant role played by acculturation factors in the inappropriate identification and placement of culturally/linguistically different students with learning and behavior problems. Research has also pointed the way for modifying the referral/staffing/placement process to more effectively meet the special needs of this population.

Definition of Terms

Acculturation: A type of cultural change initiated by the conjunction of two or more autonomous cultures. The dynamics of acculturation include selective adaptation of the value system, integration and differentiation processes. Acculturation does not mean assimilation. It refers to the process by which members of one culture adapt to the presence of another culture. This adaptation may be through integration, assimilation, rejection, or deculturation.

Convergence: The interaction of an exceptional condition(s) and the cultural and linguistic characteristics of an individual. The effect of being deaf upon the acculturation of a Spanish speaking child is an example of convergence. Another is differing attitudes within particular cultural groups toward an exceptional condition and the effect of this upon a culturally/ linguistically different exceptional child's development and learning.

Culturally and linguistically different: An individual whose native culture is not of mainstream America and whose native language is not English. The individual may or may not be acculturated to some extent and may or may not be relatively proficient in English or his/her native language.

Exceptional: A condition which requires modification of the regular instructional program in order for a child to achieve his/her maximum potential.

Special education: Specifically designed instruction for children whose educational needs cannot be addressed effectively in the regular school program without adaptation or modification.

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APPENDIX

CCDES ACCULTURATION SCALE

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Acculturation refers to adjustment or adaptation to a new cultural/social environment. This adaptation may be manifested in several ways: integration, assimilation, rejection, or marginality. The CCDES Acculturation Scale is based upon research on the factors predictive of the degree of successful integration by persons experiencing culture shock.

Cross Cultural Developmental Education Services
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Rollinsville, CO 80474

USING THE CCDES ACCULTURATION SCALE

This scale should be used to obtain an approximate measure of how acculturated a student may be into mainstream American culture. It is not to be used in isolation nor as a predictive tool. It provides a useful piece of supplemental assessment information and may be used to substantiate decisions to provide intensive learning and behavior interventions for culturally/linguistically different students rather than referring them to a staffing.

The scale provides a range from less acculturated (8) to more acculturated (40). For example, an Anglo-American born in the U.S., attending a school with less than 20% minority enrollment, who never switched school districts, who has a high proficiency in English (which is also his native language) would score 35. She would score 40 if she also took language or bilingual classes. An example of a less acculturated student would be a Native American from a community in Central America who has just arrived in the U.S., has had no classes in ESL or bilingual education, is identified as LAU A, is not very proficient in her native language or in English, and is attending a school with over 80% minority enrollment. This student would score 8 on the scale. She might score 12 if she was literate and highly proficient in her native language.

The score guidelines are given on the bottom of the CCDESA Scale. The information needed to complete the scale is:

1. Number of years the student has been in the U.S.
2. Number of years the student has been in the school district.
3. Number of years the student has received direct instruction in ESL or bilingual classes.
4. The LAU category (see attached).
5. Degree of native language proficiency.
6. Degree of English language proficiency.
7. Ethnicity and/or nation of origin.
8. Percentage of enrollment in their school which is composed of non-Anglo-American students.

CCDES ACCULTURATION SCALE

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NAME________________________ SCHOOL______________________
DATE OF BIRTH____________ SEX______ GRADE________________
AGE AT ARRIVAL IN U.S.______ LANGUAGE(s) SPOKEN AT HOME________

	Raw Data	CCDESA Scale Score
Number of years, United States	________	________
Number of years, School District	________	________
Number of years, ESL and/or bilingual education	________	________
LAU category	________	________
Native language proficiency	________	________
English language proficiency	________	________
Ethnicity/Nation of origin	________	________
Percentage minority enrollment in attending school	________	________
	CCDESA Scale Score TOTAL	☐

CCDESA SCALE SCORE GUIDELINES

Number of years, US/SD: Under 1 = 1 1 - 2 = 2 3 - 4 = 3 5 - 6 = 4 Over 6 = 5	Number of years, ESL/BE: 0.0 - 1.0 = 1 1.1 - 1.5 = 2 1.6 - 2.0 = 3 2.1 - 2.5 = 4 2.6 - 3.0 = 5
LAU category A = 1 B = 2 C = 3 D = 4 E = 5	Ethnicity Native American = 1 Hispanic = 2 Asian/Pac. Is. = 3 Black/MidEast = 4 White/European = 5
Percentage Enrollment 81% - 100% = 1 61% - 80% = 2 41% - 60% = 3 21% - 40% = 4 0% - 20% = 5	Language Proficiency Least = 1 Proficient = 2 = 3 Most = 4 Proficient = 5

CCDESA Scale based upon research by Adler, 1975; Berry, 1980; Collier, 1983; and Juffer, 1983.

LAU CATEGORIES

LAU Category A -- This student is monolingual in a language other than English

LAU Category B -- This student is monolingual in a language other than English, but may have some ability to comprehend English.

LAU Category C -- This student is considered to be "Bilingual" and is able to understand and speak the other language and English equally well.

LAU Category D -- This student is monolingual in English and may understand very little of the second language.

LAU Category E -- This student is totally monolingual in English.

REFERRAL, INTERVENTION, AND STAFFING OF CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIFFERENT CHILDREN

The BISECT Model

Building Level

Referral

1. Teacher brings specific problem(s) to attention of TACIT (Teacher Assistance Child Intervention Team).
2. Appropriate interventions are suggested by TACIT and implemented by teacher(s) with assistance from appropriate personnel.
3. TACIT may include:
   Classroom Teacher,
   Bilingual/ESL Specialist,
   Special Educator,
   Chapter I Teacher,
   Counselor,
   Social Worker,
   Parent/Advocate,
   Others

Intervention Service Options

1. Classroom management assistance
   a. Academic interventions
   b. Behavior interventions
   c. Social/peer interventions
   d. Other teaching/behavior management strategies
2. Curriculum adaptation
   a. Special education adaptation
   b. Bilingual/ESL adaptations
   c. Cultural/linguistic adaptations
   d. Other curriculum adaptation
3. Psycho/social assistance
   a. Counseling
   b. Support groups
   c. Social services
   d. Social survival
   e. Cross-cultural counseling
   f. Acculturation assistance
   g. Other psycho/social aid
4. Physical assistance
   a. Medical
   b. Nutrition
   c. Sensory evaluation
   d. Environmental evaluation
   e. Other direct physical aid
5. Experiential assistance (due to mobility, trauma, etc.)
   a. High interest/low vocabulary
   b. School survival
   c. Metacognitive/learning strategies
   d. Sociolinguistic development
   e. "Remedial" basic skills
   f. Curriculum adaptation
   g. Other experiential adaptation
6. "Slow learner"
   a. Developmental curricula
   b. Modification of regular curricula
   c. Assistance to teacher: materials, schedule, etc.
   d. Training for teacher/parents/aides
   e. Bilingual tutor with special training
   f. Other learning/coping strategies
7. Language development
   a. First language development
   b. Intensive L_1 to L_2 transfer/transition
   c. Intensive ESL
   d. First language CALPS/ESL BICS
   e. CALPS/BICS in English
   f. Interactive language strategies (INREAL)
   g. Socio/linguistic strategies
   h. Other linguistic assistance
8. Other

If the problem is not resolved by interventions, and/or if as a result of these interventions, new patterns and indications arise, TACIT may try other indicated interventions or may recommend staffing.

District Level

Staffing

Formal and informal assessment in regard to specific concern or suspected handicapping condition, taking into consideration:

1. Assess sociolinguistic competence and language proficiency in L_1 and L_2.
2. If primary language is not English, assess in the primary language.
3. If balanced bilinguals, assess in both L_1 and L_2.
4. If limited proficiency in either language, use sociolinguistic and non-language dependent measures in both languages.
5. Use a multidimensional approach by a multidisciplinary team.
6. Various optimization procedures should be tried.
7. Review tests and procedures for culture specific bias.
8. Individualized Education Plan (IEP) should reflect the total needs, including acculturation, culture, and language needs.
9. Staffing Team may include:
   School Psychologist
   Special Educator
   Speech/Language Specialist
   Bilingual/ESL Specialist
   Acculturation Specialist
   Social Worker
   Counselor
   Advocate
   Parent
   Others

1. No handicap determined. Go back to various alternative service options and/or intervention techniques.
2. Handicap determined:
   a. Placement in special education.
   b. IEP development must include:
      1) L^1/L^2 acculturation needs and who is responsible for services.
      2) Integration of SE/BE services/resources.
      3) How culture and language assistance is utilized in meeting special needs as well as needs of whole child.
   c. Support team may be aides, tutors, other resources.
   d. Coordinated team may be special educator and bilingual/ESL specialists (acculturation specialist) plus other resources.
   e. Bilingual Special Educator or special educator trained in acculturation.

C. Collier, 1984
Revised 05/87

Diane Ashton, Ph.D.
Preschool Coordinator
Sonoma County SELPA

Multi-Disciplinary Preschool Assessment

Obtaining a reliable measure of abilities on a preschool aged child is challenging at best. Children of this age (three to five) change very rapidly, and skills and abilities which are not observable or appear to be emerging one day may be in place a few weeks thereafter. The examiner can always be certain of one thing -- there will be changes in the child's abilities from the time of the assessment to the time of the IEP! Therefore, it is generally best to have a more fluid, informal assessment, looking for relative strengths and weaknesses rather than looking at fixed scores. For this reason, criterion-referenced or curriculum-based measurement instruments generally yield more information than norm-referenced standardized intelligence measures.

The environment in which assessment is carried out is also very important. Working with a child in his or her natural environment, such as the home or regular preschool, offers a much broader view of the child's capabilities than an unfamiliar office or classroom. Remember, you are a stranger to the child, and he or she will feel most relaxed and comfortable in the presence of parents or familiar surroundings. Obviously, the best results can be obtained when the child is feeling happy and at ease. It is most beneficial to have the parent present when assessing, not only for the child's comfort, but for the examiner's assistance as well. The parent knows the child better than anyone, and it will aid in the accuracy of your assessment to engage in active discussion with the parent. Asking questions of the parent such as, "Does he normally approach a task like that"? "Can he do this at other times"?, "Has he ever had experience with this type of task"? etc., will clarify and add to your observations.

Speaking of observations, an examiner's observational skills are probably his or her most crucial assessment tool. It is not enough to know whether or not a child can complete a task successfully; you also want to know how they do it (or don't do it). Some of the things to watch for during the assessment are: frustration tolerance, persistence, problem solving approach, distractibility, response to structure, response to praise or other reinforcers, curiosity, reliance on parent, retention and generalization of material, learning rate, imitation skills, following directions, compliance, impulsivity, motor skills and involvement, and speech and language skills.

A team approach to assessment is very valuable because there is so much to be aware of when interacting with the child. One member of the team can administer the assessment while the other member observes and records the child's responses. An ongoing dialogue between the team members during the assessment is useful not only in terms of maximizing information obtained, but for the parent's benefit and understanding of the assessment process. Including the parent in this dialogue when additional information or clarification is required will be of assistance to you as well as make the parent feel more a part of what could otherwise be a threatening or anxiety-producing process. Be sure to always talk with the parent prior to the assessment (either by telephone or in person) to explain what the process is about and to gather necessary information (e.g. medical, historical) which might impact the assessment.

Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, be sure to establish a good rapport with the child before you begin your assessment. Normal behavior for children of this age is playing -- so come to the assessment prepared to play! Expect to sit on the floor, and dress accordingly. Be flexible, and let the child determine the pace of the assessment. If a child completes a task such as block building while you are "playing" on the floor, give credit for this and don't require it again if you move to a table task assessment procedure. Remember, if you, the examiner, can make the assessment fun for the child, you will be able to gather maximum, reliable data. So, bring your bubbles, puppets, stuffed animals and wind-up toys, and be prepared... you may just find yourself having fun too!

TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 27

8:00 AM - NOON

Amy E. Albers
Carol S. Fagen
Northern Westchester BOCES
Projects Building
Yorktown Heights, N.Y. 10598

CROSSING THE BOUNDARIES:
A TRANSDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO RURAL STUDENT EDUCATION

Change or innovation within an organization is usually accomplished through administrative intervention, that is by the leader realizing that a program or procedure is not effective or efficient and deciding that a change is necessary or desirable (Miles, 1964; Abbott, 1965; Hanson, 1979). The administrator can effect change either by hiring staff to implement the change, or by retraining personnel to perform the new functions.

Both of these techniques were instrumental in effecting a change in the utilization of clinical team members in the Putnam/Northern Westchester Board of Cooperative Educational Services Regional Demonstration Program for Preschool Handicapped Children. This presentation will describe the transdisciplinary (TD) team model, how it differs from multidisciplinary team models, and its application to rural student special education.

The TD model developed, was based in part, on the process developed by the United Cerebral Palsy Association of New York, as described in their Staff Development Handbook, A Resource for the TD process, 1976:

"The TD approach simply reduces the number of professionals needed to render separate, direct services to the child. In doing this, the TD team reduces the compartmentalization and fragmentation of services to the child and his family". (p.3)

Nearly all intervention programs for handicapped children involve a variety of professionals providing diagnostic and remedial services. Communication between disciplines is important to ensure coordination of services. A multi or interdisciplinary approach usually involves each professional in assessing the child separately and recommending treatment, if necessary, to be provided by a specialist (Carter, 1970; Hasenstab, 1979). These plans are then coordinated through staff meetings, and schedules for providing the services are arranged. The transdisciplinary approach involves the professionals in assessing the child together. The clinical team members not only talk about their diagnostic impressions, they demonstrate their abilities to their co-workers. The TD assessment assures that the 'total' child is considered and that the separate disciplines are not overlooking important aspects of the child's development. Team building is an important concept in this approach. Staff training prior to actual TD assessment is necessary for this approach to be successful.

The model for assessment, defined as the "process of collecting data for the purpose of 1) specifying and verifying problems and 2) making decisions about students" (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 1985) required revision in order to more appropriately meet the needs of both professionals and students.

The need for assessment methods and instruments that do not penalize youngsters within our society who are culturally and linguistically different was brought to the nation's attention by such legal suits as Diana v. State Board of Education, 1970; and the Larry P. v. Riles case in 1972. These cases questioned the practice of placing minority children in EMR classes on the basis of IQ scores. Although special educators recognize the importance of comprehensive multifaceted assessment for all children to determine a child's overall functioning effectively in school, community, and home environments; shortcomings still prevail when called upon to do this task (Cummins, 1984; Nazarro, 1976; Jones, 1976).

Typically, clinical team members (psychologist, speech therapist, and social worker) are hired on a part-time basis (one or two days per week). The transdisciplinary approach was adopted to ensure quality services for children while making maximum use of clinical team member's time. Children with a cultural background markedly atypical from that of the surrounding community need alternatives or adapted techniques throughout assessment. Reynolds and Birch (1982) suggest using more than one method of measuring important aspects and using 2 or more persons of different backgrounds. Additionally, someone should be included in the process who can provide a special perspective on the home environment. The transdisciplinary approach is one avenue by which to attain these goals.

The transdisciplinary team approach allows for a comprehensive assessment of a child's needs and abilities in one location with consistency and continuity preserved throughout the assessment process. In order to utilize this approach, the TD team is hired to work one day per week to do assessments, parent conferencing, and consultation.

Initial staff training consists of team meetings with each clinical team member and teacher discussing their philosophy and demonstrating the techniques they use in assessing a child's skills and developing an intervention plan. Information exchange is particularly important at this juncture of the team building process in order to understand cultural differences and their relationship to student behavior. This training highlights the overlap in evaluating young children's skills and behavior and provides for "role extension", allowing others to understand the relevant aspects and interrelationship of the disciplines.

Prior to the evalution, a case review meeting is held by clinical team and teacher. Screening information and reports from other agencies are reviewed and decisions regarding the focus of the assessment are made.

The TD Child Assessment is a diagnostic session in which all team members, teacher, parents, and child are present. This "arena evaluation" allows all present to observe the same behavior and skills of the child. The parents have the opportunity to observe the evaluation and team members can easily ask questions of the parents if something unusual occurs during this session. During this one to one and a half hour session, each team member has specific responsibilities that allow for the assessment of all necessary behavioral and academic skills in addition to obtaining pertinent parent information. The major focus of the testing is on the qualitative information received because of the limits of the validity of the tests for the population. In addition to formal testing, a variety of toys are provided to observe the child's behavior and language in a less structured, free play situation. After the child's assessment, each team member writes a brief individual report and reads it to the other members. At this case conference, all information obtained is synthesized and goals and objectives are generated for the child's Individualized Educational Program (IEP). The team also decides if referrals to other agencies for additional evaluation (such as audiological, neurological or other medical evaluations) are necessary. A summary form with a diagnostic impression and specific recommendations developed, is also written at this case conference. Assignment of the team member to attend and arrange the follow-up parent conference is made at this time. Parents are informed of the results and impressions of the child assessment. The IEP is reviewed and parent input is sought. The child's classroom program and parent involvement in meetings, observations, or volunteering is explained. If appropriate, prescriptions for the parent to follow at home will be generated.

Each assessment is viewed as an opportunity for staff development with the members discussing the techniques employed in a particular assessment. Due to the limited schedule of the team members, their knowledge and skills are most effective when used to train the teacher responsible for implementing the plan. "Role release" as it is practiced by a transdisciplinary team, involves each member in identifying those roles which could be transferred to the teacher through this type of training. Each team member models appropriate intervention techniques with the children and parents and then observes the teacher using these techniques and provides feedback. For example, the parent, teacher, teacher aide, OT and PT could be taught language modeling and eliciting techniques by the speech pathologist. This enhances the services offered by the program by ensuring a holistic and consistent approach to the individual child. Staff training in the TD model is an ongoing process. It requires a commitment on the part of staff to communicate their knowledge about asssessment and intervention techniques, and a willingness to receive and practice the techniques shared. A mutual trust and respect develops and builds as the TD process is utilized.

In summary the transdisciplinary approach offers an alternative to the challenge of identifying and educating the young rural student with special needs. Although the time and input which one clinical team may devote to one child may seem disproportionate, the increased communication may facilitate continuity of appropriate services.

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Roberta Daniels
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IDENTIFYING AND PROGRAMMING FOR PRESCHOOL GIFTED STUDENTS.

Marland's 1972 famous report to Congress about the status of gifted students provided the stimulus to identification and programming for the non-recognized and underserved population of gifted students. However, like other areas of Special Education, the preschool age student was not part of the concern.

Identification of preschool gifted students has apparently been viewed, erroneously, as an ego booster for parents. The underlying need to identify outstanding abilities early is so that parents or preschool teachers can provide more appropriate learning opportunities for the youngsters. It is important that there be a"better match" between interests and ability levels of the students and activities that are planned and provided.

In the session that I am planning to present I will describe the identification procedure and a variety of activities that were provided for the four and five year olds that attended a program for preschool gifted. Participants will have an opportunity to see the actual test instruments that were utilized for the three week pilot program.

The test instruments that were utilized, and that will be shared with the audience,are briefly described as follows:

1. *Parent Checklist (PC)- The parent Checklist is a 50 item measure covering a variety of potential ability areas, such as: Emotional, physical, intellectual, visual and performing arts, and various academic areas.*
2. *Screening Test for Academic Readiness (STAR)- The STAR is a 50 item performance activity which measures specific academic aptitude dealing with picture-vocabulary, relationships, drawings, and numbers.*
3. *Thinking Creatively with Action and Movement (TCAM)- The non verbal activity measures and addresses responses that are original and imaginative. Children have an opportunity to indicate their level of creativity by various movements.*

4. Slosson Intelligence Test (SIT) - The Slosson is a brief individual intelligence test which provides information about a variety of abilities. Test items are closely related to Gessell and Stanford-Binet test items. The assessment requires the child to respond verbally.
5. Test of Early Reading Ability (TERA)- The Early Reading Test is for children 4-7 years and takes 15-20 minutes to administer to individuals. Results provide valuable information for parents or teachers for instruction.
6. Test of Early Mathematics Ability (TEMA) - This individual test requires about 20 minutes to administer. Indications are that the test provides information to identify specific strengths in mathematical thinking.

Information will be provided relative to the administration, scoring, and interpretation of the separate assessment instruments.

Another aspect of the presentation will address learning in a variety of ways to encourage creative productivity. Elaboration of the following points will be made in the presentation:

1. Actively exploring the environment with youngsters. Using discovery techniques to encourage children to logically draw conclusions based upon observation and experimentation.
2. Furthering individual interest areas. Fostering their enthusiasm for learning by being an interested audience.
3. Support imaginary, as well as real, friends. This is a unique way of stimulating and supporting creativity.
4. Expose children to the world. Point out interesting events in local areas (as well as far away places). Link the new or unknown with the known and familiar.
5. Look for the potential in the underachieving. Motivation doesn't necessarily come from within the child.

Sample activities will be presented that are representative of individual student needs and abilities. References will also be provided as a handout for those in attendance. Rural educators will find the instruments economical and readily available. Scoring and interpretation are easy to master.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Saturday, February 27

8:00 - 9:25 AM

Norlis C. McKay
Principal/Director of
Special Education

Jeffrey A. Hurst
School Psychologist

Constance E. Abel
SUCCESS Coordinator

500 West Old Linden Road
Show Low, Arizona 85901
(602) 537-4525

4 SUCCESS: A PRODUCTIVE PARTNERSHIP FOR AT-RISK STUDENTS

The 4 SUCCESS Program of the Show Low School District #10, Show Low, Arizona, has found a way to provide effective education for students with learning problems. 4 SUCCESS unites Special Education, Chapter One, Arizona K-3 Academic Assistance, and district funded remedial education to ensure an academically integrated, administratively coordinated support system for students at risk, that promotes active partnerships with parents, minimizes stigmatization, centers accountability, and empowers teachers to meet student needs.

Show Low School District has recognized that while not all students learn in the same ways or at the same rate, it is the responsibility of the district to design and organize instruction that promotes the development of each child academically, socially and emotionally. The 4 SUCCESS Program was created as one way of meeting this responsibility. Its primary goal is to bring about success for students who are currently not achieving as well as they could.

There are four essential components of the SUCCESS Program: SUCCESS classrooms, the SUCCESS Team, SUCCESS staff development, and Parent Involvement for SUCCESS.

Because past experience with the "pull-out" method of remediation had yielded limited effectiveness due the negative effect of being singled out for a "special class", the lack of consistency between regular and remedial programs, the blurred sharing of responsiblity for the educational program of the remedial student between "special" and "regular" teacher, and the frequent inablity of low self-esteem students to adjust to multiple daily teacher and classroom transitions, priority was given to offering the remedial and support systems that students needed within the framework of the regular classroom. This led to the establishment of the SUCCESS classrooms, and the abolishment of pull-out programs, with the exception of Speech.

Each grade level, 1-5, now has an all-day team taught SUCCESS class, staffed by a district funded regular education teacher and a 4 SUCCESS funded Special Education teacher, who work together to provide regular and remedial (or special) education for the students in their class. Because there are two teachers, there is a lower student-teacher ratio, more student-teacher interaction, flexible student groupings, and better individualization of instruction. Because the students are wtih the same teachers all day, there is a high degree of student-teacher bonding, integration of all subject areas, and consistency of discipline. Because each team of teachers was carefully selected and matched, there is complementation and supplementation of teaching skills, and there is an increased dedication and enthusiasm for ensuring student success.

The SUCCESS classes use the regular grade level curriculum, with the intent of student mastery of the objectives, skills and concepts prescribed for their grade level. SUCCESS teachers are free to use whatever modifications of time, presentation or materials they deem necessary to ensure student success.

Students are selected to participate in the SUCCESS program based upon achievement test scores and teacher judgement scales, with the recommendation of a multi-disciplinary team which includes parents. The SUCCESS classes serve identified Chapter One students, identified emotionally handicapped and learning disabled students, and identified underachievers.

The SUCCESS classrooms are located with the other grade level classrooms and SUCCESS students join with their peers for music, PE and library classes, lunch and recess periods, as well as assemblies and field trips. When surveyed, SUCCESS students indicate that they do not see themselves as being in a special class, and that they are doing better in school than they have ever done before.

In addition to the all-day classes in grades 1-5, our departmentalized 6-7-8 junior high has added a SUCCESS block to the sixth grade program. Students identified as above participate in a three hour reading-language arts-math block program taught by a regular education teacher and special education teacher team. The sixth grade SUCCESS class then rotates as a group to science and social studies, taught by the regular sixth grade science and social studies teachers, respectively. The students participate in PE and electives with their grade level peers. Plans are being made to add a seventh and eighth grade block next year.

Crucial to the 4 SUCCESS concept is the SUCCESS Team, which provides for program continuity between grade levels, and greater resources for meeting student needs. The SUCCESS team is comprised of all SUCCESS teachers, the school nurse, the speech therapist, the school psychologist, the school principal, and the SUCCESS coordinator. Teachers outside the SUCCESS program are always welcome also, and often participate in team activities.

The team meets each month for SUCCESS staff development and inservice. Here curriculum issues can be addressed, teaching techniques are shared and staff or outside specialists can share their expertise. In

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addition, weekly staffings, which include parents, focus on the progress of students within or without the program who are not being successful in their present placement. All available resources are tapped to meet student needs, whatever they may be, action plans are written, and followup is accomplished through our organizational structure and professional commitment.

We recognize that success for each child is dependent upon a unified effort by the home and school. With this in mind we rely on Parent Involvement for SUCCESS. SUCCESS teachers work closely with parents on a classroom level: calling home, sending notes home, inviting parents to visit or volunteer in the classrooms, making home visits, and conferencing frequently, as well as at the end of each grading period. On the program level, a parent orientation, parent workshops, and a parent-child-teacher social are held each year. Parents are always included in staffings and multi-disciplinary conferences. Parent tips for helping their children learn are sent home frequently.

The 4 SUCCESS Program works because it provides an environment where students can be successful instead of frustrated, because the staff is committed to sharing their knowledge, expertise and caring for one another, as well as for the students, because parents are valued as indispensable to student progress, and because the school effort to remediate learning difficulties and deficiencies is directed and unified.

Pre-post testing data of students in the SUCCESS Program has reflected exciting student gains in achievement and attitude.

Educators interested in learning more about our program are invited to visit our district or correspond with us at the address listed above.

Please Do Not Cite
Without Permission
of The Senior Author.

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Exploration, Problem Solving and Play: Using Children's Salient Responses in Infant Assessment and Intervention[1]

A paper presented at the Eighth Annual ACRES National Rural Special Education Conference, Monterey, California, February 27, 1988.

Abstract

Lewis and Starr (1979) presented a model of early child development known as the salient responses of the human organism. The salient responses refer to actions or indices of a child's development or units of behavior seen in all children whether they happen to be developmentally disabled or not, no matter the developmental theory(ies) to which an individual follows in their work. The advantage of such a model is its potential value as the foundation for: a) an assessment protocol to be used with young children; b) a means to evaluate the outcomes of early intervention services; and, c) a method to understand the similarities of children's development in quantitative and qualitiative ways. The potential for the model and its practical utility have not been presented in the literature previously.

Exploration, Problem Solving and Play: Using Children's Salient Responses in Infant Assessment and Intervention

Crossing the boundaries between theory, research and practice has been an issue of great import in early childhood special education. Early intervention for developmentally delayed and at-risk infants is often provided without an understanding of the theoretical and research underpinnings guiding services delivery. Meisels (1985) reported that questions regarding the efficacy of early intervention arise from not resolving this dilemma. And, unresolved, it has a negative impact upon the continuation of those efforts by policymakers and others overseeing the authorization and implementation of programs for young children with special needs and their families.

One solution to the dilemma posited by Meisels is using Lewis and Starr's (1979) theoretical and research paradigm in child development known as the "salient responses model". These responses, or variables, include: the quantity, quality, speed of acquisition, affective tone, generalizability, organizational properties, and intention in the use of concepts and information across all developmental domains. The salient response(s) model can be used in the assessment and design of interventions for young children with special needs. And, it can be used across the great variety of theoretically-based (maturation to constructivist to behavioral) early intervention program curricula in order to evaluate those programs since it is a paradigm that represents the integration of developmental domains, a more realistic portrait of the complexities of child growth than what is seen when studying programs that attempt to implement activities based upon a model of mutually exclusive developmental domians. Using Lewis and Starr's salient response model, then, is an innovative, alternative approach to early intervention. The use of the salient response model in this manner has not been reported on in the literature.

Integrated Modeling: Human Development and Play as Set Theory

The salient responses of the child can be seen best in the examination of the play of infants since play, according to Rogers (1982) "is an all-encompassing activity...that virtually all areas of...development---cognitive, motor, social, emotional, language---can be observed in a child's play" (p. 11). Further, play mirrors the integrated quality of a child's development. That is to say, play is similar to set theory. In this view, play is the set and the domains of development are the individual elements comprising the set. At the "place" where each element of the set intersects, development as an integrated conceptualization exists (See Figure 1). Using this model can allow for a more specific understanding of the mix of program philosophy, eligibility criteria and intervention strategies required to evaluate a programmatic effort especially in product, or outcome. terms where data about dvelopmental change is the focus of attention of which Meisels has noted providers should be concerned.

Figure 1

Child Development as Set Theory

Set Theory Notation:

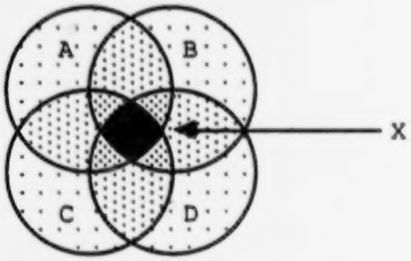
X=Set

A, B, C, D=Elements of the Set

$\cap$ =Intersection of the Elements of the Set

Intersection of the Elements=An Integrated Set (X)

$A \cap B \cap C \cap D$=X



Play as Set Theory: An Integrated Notion of Development:

X=Play (as a Set)

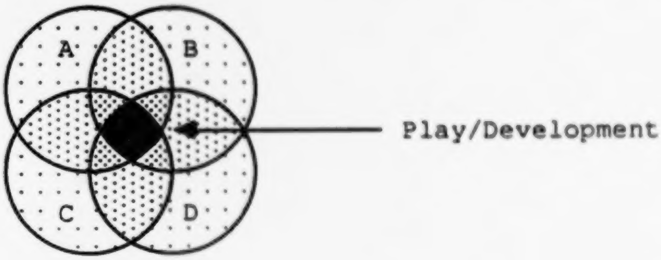
A, B, C, D=Elements of the Set (domains of development):

(A=Cognition; B=Motor Functioning; C=Communications and Language; and, D=Social/Emotional Functioning)

$\cap$ =Intersection of the Elements (developmental domains) of the Set (Play)

$A \cap B \cap C \cap D$=Play

Intersection of the Elements=Child Development as an Integrated Notion



Since child development, in reality, is the consideration of change in the human organism over time, the salient response model provides a method of viewing that change, as well as the complexity of development as it occurs. The following example points to the viability of the model. In a study of exploration, problem solving and play in typically and atypically developing infants between 8 and 18 months of age utilizing the salient response model that began in 1985 (Canella, Berkeley, Constans & Parkhurst, 1987), the findings indicated that change did occur. The typical infants exhibited greater problem solving skills, while qualitative play behaviors were similar for both groups. Exploration and play were positively-related to problem solving for the atypical infants and negatively-related for the typical infants. Behavior of younger and older typical children revealed a progression from decreasing exploration to more quality play. Atypical infants did not follow this pattern. Both types of activity increased with age. These trends are more easily explained to service providers by using the salient responses model as a guide, demonstrating the viability of the model in intervention programs because developmental change can be observed in greater detail through the salient response model.

For instance, it seems easier to explain how an infant explores a rattle by noting how often the child mouths the rattle, the tone the child uses when mouthing the rattle, and the affect of the baby while mouthing the rattle. The research just described was conducted with infants who attended a day-long child care program, as well as with infants enrolled in a center-based and home-based combination early intervention program. The staff of the early intervention program were provided inservice sessions on the research and the salient responses model. The research results were presented in traditional, non-salient response fashion. Then, the staff was provided with information about the model and the relationship of the model to exploration, play and problem solving. The second presentation offered a practical approach to using the model. From that point onward, the salient response model was incorporated into the program's qualitative child evaluation protocol, as well as into some curricular activities by some of the staff.

Defining the Salient Responses

Lewis and Starr suggest that "at its most basic level, the problem of development is that of finding order in change, identifying continuities in behavioral systems (developmental systems, present authors' emphasis) that are rapidly transforming and reorganizing (in the infant) (p. 653). Thus, they have brought order to the complexities of development by devising the salient response model. A response, they noted, "is an experimenter-defined unit of behavior measured along some dimension" (p. 657). The dimensions of measurement of each of the responses/variables will be discussed later in this paper, especially in terms of qualitative assessment.

The variables have been defined as follows:

> Salient attributes of responses include quantity, quality, speed of acquisition, utilization, affective tone, generalizability, organizational properties, and intention (in all developmental domains, present authors' emphasis). Quantity refers to the gross frequency and/or duration with which the behavior is expressed in a given unit of time. In the case of language, for example, this is how much a person speaks. Quality refers to the extent the response is effective, efficient, or elaborately differentiated. For example, we can ask whether an infant uses syntactically, correct language in a situtation. Speed of acquisition refers to how quickly the response is acquired. Utilization refers to the circumstances in which the behavior is displayed. The affective tone refers to the degree of affect associated with use. Generalizability refers to the target behavior in the place of other responses, while organizational properties refer to the relationship of the particular response to others in the individual's repertoire. Intention refers to the infant's control of the response and awareness of that control (p. 657).

Lewis and Starr represented change in development along the following mathematical parameter:

$t=$birth or time of initial observation

$+x=$later time intervals

$d=$development

$d=t$ or development at birth;

$d=t+x$ or development at birth plus one time interval

$d=t+x+x$....or development at birth plus each consecutive time interval

Thus, applying this formula in a qualitative sense or in a quantitative sense, depending, of course, upon the existence of a relevant quantitative assessment protocol, offers thhe foundation for an evaluation and intervention system which can yield pertinent program evaluation data which could suggest the progress or lack of progress each child makes programatically with great specificity. The need for specificity is typically evident as teachers and other child devlopmental specialists ofetn complain about the lack of detailed records regarding the performance of children in programs.

Rationale for Qualitative Assessment

While there have been many definitions of qualitative assessment advanced in the literature, it has been suggested that this methodology is a guided way in which to collect data and to make interpretations and conclusions about children based upon that data. That is, methods of qualitative assessment, such as systematic observations of children and informant interviews with parents and other caregivers, are guided in that areas of focus are specified. In terms of qualitative assessment for young children between birth and eight years of age, the specific foci are developmental domains (i.e., cognition, motor functioning, communications and social-emotional development). Qualitative data is relevant because it utilizes detailed descriptions of the child's developmental functioning in natural environments that reflect the child's abilities in those domains. By utilizing detailed descriptions of domain-specific developmental performance via the salient response model, assessment information can lead to more functional and efficient interventions than single dependence upon more standardized protocols since development is really complex interactions that are better observed in an integrated state.

While qualitative assessment is much more labor intensive than other assessment methods, it seems to be used informally by assessment teams and teachers because this form of evaluation technique is individual to each child, and it yields data that can be used in the establishment and refinement of interventions not always available with other protocols. This alternative approach advocates for the formal inclusion of qualitative assessment in an entire individually designed child asssessment protocol since it precludes many criticisms associated with standardized and criterion-referenced evaluations.

In the past, for instance, test-based assessments have been criticized for a number of reasons. First, abuses of norm-referenced tests were reported in terms of invalid and/or unreliable standardization data (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 1981). Second, the tests were considered biased against certain minority groups; and, thus were discriminatory (Mercer, 1973, 1979). Third, norm-referenced tests were purported to be (correctly) predictors of future performance on groups of children, not individual children (Matarazzo, 1980). Because of these criticisms, a movement toward criterion-referenced tests emerged. These instruments were designed to identify strengths and weaknesses in a child's performance, not to compare children to "normal populations." The emphasis, then, shifted from what was normal or age appropriate to determining what skills a child was capable of performing. Recently, criterion-referenced tests have come under criticism. Concerns usually involve the use of checklists where observors indicate whether or not specified behaviors are present in the child's developmental reportorie. Those who argue against this type of assessment claim that predetermined behaviors are not always appropriate or even relevant to the child. "Teaching to the test" is another criticism of criterion referenced instruments.

Qualitative assessment has taken assessment methodology one step further toward child-oriented, individual child-specific evaluations. In qualitative assessment, there is no observation of specified developmental tasks, but there are observations of developmental performance exhibited by the child. In this way, all developmental domains and all performance skills are by definition relevant to the child. Although, qualitative assessment is considered to be more functional in terms of assessing handicapped children, it is not intended to replace test-based evaluation procedures. The intention of a comprehensive assessment battery is to integrate a variety of methods in order to develop a "complete portrait" of the child. Therefore, qualitative assessment is just one method to use in the devlopment of sound human services programming.

Salient Responses and Program Evaluation

The "Services to Children" component is the primary programmatic endeavor of most early intervention efforts. In these programs, home-based, center-based or a combination of these two models, intervention/education is provided to the beneficiaries of services, namely children and their families. If children are evaluated utilizing the salient response model, then, program outcomes can be measured along those same dimensions as intervention objectives could be developed in order to overcome a lack of continuity in the change a child makes along any dimension from d=t+x+x...

Since program evaluation methodology includes both quantitative and qualitative measures, a qualitative analysis is being advocated presently in order to provide substantive anecdotal descriptions in a standard manner, rather than utilizing catch-as-catch can descriptions of children's progress as seems to be the case when qualitative measure are employed in early intervention. The rational idea of viewing development, d=t+x+x..., can be applied to qualitative descriptions of development since the changes which are detailed utilizing qualitative methodology is a discussion of change from time d to interval x, to the next interval x. Also, x can be thought of in terms of a child's age or in terms of length of time the child has been enrolled in a program.

Summary

Lewis and Starr's model, the salient responses of the human organism, is an alternative future for special educators to consider in their work with children: assessment and program planning. In addition, program administrators can use the model, qualitatively and quantitatively, in their design of an evaluation of program outcomes. Of special significance is the fact that this model assists in overcoming the dilemmas Meisels has suggested is inherent in not knowing or establishing the developmental bases for an early intervention program. Since the model can be used across most theoretical constructs of development, and because early intervention program providers use a number of different constructs as they deliver services from a variety of professional disciplines (each resting upon its own theoretical notions), the salient responses model should be considered even though its use can be criticized due to its labor intensive nature. At present, the use of the model has not been reported on in the literature, however that should not distract program providers from recognizing its unlimited potential and its viability.

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WESTERN OREGON STATE COLLEGE
RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM
CONSULTANT LOW-INCIDENCE PRE-SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT
CONFERENCE PAPER

NATIONAL RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION CONFERENCE
MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA
FEBRUARY 23-27, 1988

PREPARED BY: Maxine Kilcrease and Patricia Brush

In 1980, a national comparative study involving 17 states investigated the needs in rural special education. Recruitment, retention of quailified staff, staff development resources, resistance to change, and awareness of cultural differences were just a few of the major problems identified. With the exception of the Willamette Valley, Oregon is considered a rural state and has identified the same problems as addessed by the national study.

Special Education Directors in Oregon prioritized training needs in response to the Oregon Cooperative Personnel Planning Council survey. The greatest needs were identified as consultant skills and specialized training with low incidence handicapping conditions. The Rural Model Low Incidence project goals are a response to these needs.

The specific goals of this program were to increase the number of special education teachers who were effective and were willing to work in rural/remote areas. The objectives of the project were: (1) to develop a recruitment system that would identify master rural teachers who want to become special educators, (2) to develop a curriculum that would help students acquire the competencies necessary to function as a rural special education consultant teacher with expertise in low-incidence handicapping conditions, (3) to develop a data collection system that would evaluate the effectiveness of a rural special education preservice training program, and (4) to develop materials that would assist other colleges and universities to modify their existing special education programs to provide an area of concentration in rural special education and a broader background in a wide variety of handicapping conditions or a specialization of low-incidence including deaf/blind, autism, and motor impairments.

Upon completion of the training program, master teachers are prepared to serve the needs of low-incidence handicapped populations as well as being certified to teach students who are severely handicapped or mildly handicapped. A further emphasis in the program focused on the appreciation of cultural differences and their impact on rural communities. The teacher preparation program is at the Master's Degree level and consists of instruction in:

1. Characteristics and identification of handicapping conditions.
2. Assessment and instructional programming.
3. Legal requirements and management of programs and personnel.
4. Development of rural community resources.
5. Characteristics and needs of selected cultural groups.
6. Consultation and communication skills.

7. Methods in adapting curriculum, materials and instruction.
8. Issues of rural life and rural community expectations.
9. Integration of microcomputers in rural educational settings.
10. Strategies and techniques for teaching students with low-incidence handicapping conditions.

As a result of the project, twelve modules were written for the purpose of disseminating information. Each module details the procedures which can be used in replicating this project. The module titles are:

1. Introduction, Background, and Project Overview
2. Recruitment Module
3. Selection, Monitoring and Data Management
4. Curriuculum Development Process
5. Consultant Processes for the Rural Education Specialist
6. Cultural Considerations in Rural Settings
7. Accessing Resources in Rural Communities
8. Teaching Students with Motor Impairments in Rural Communities
9. Teaching Students with Low-Incidence Handicapping Conditions in Rural Settings
10. Teaching Students who are Deaf-Blind in Rural Settings
11. Teaching Students with Autism in the Rural Community
12 Program Evaluation Module

This presentation will highlight selected modules. All modules are available on request. A synopsis of each module follows.

RECRUITMENT

Recruitment activites represent some of the most important aspects of the special education program designed to train rural educators. It is important to recruit master teachers with outstanding qualifications. Without an adequate pool of applicants, the quality of the program will be greatly affected. A large pool of applicants makes it possible to select not only the highest qualified applicants, but also makes it possible to select applicants from many geographic locations. It also brings students with diverse educational, professional and cultural backgrounds into the project.

A recruitment plan must be developed and systematically implemented to ensure the success of the overall program. The key components of a recruitment plan are:

1. Recruitment of personnel currently residing in rural areas
2. Development of recruitment materials
3. Program publicity
4. Recruitment of minority students

The recruitment module discusses procedural aspects associated with these topics.

SELECTION

Once an adequate applicant pool has been established, the selection process begins. Critical components of the selection process include: 1) identification of student selection criteria, 2) selection committee responsibilities, 3) student monitoring, and 4) a data management system.

Selection criteria was established by interaction with state department of education personnel and advisory committee members. The considerations included county of origin, committment to teaching in rural areas, level of teaching skills, evidence of positive interpersonal relationships with staff and students, and grade point average.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

For the first time in history, the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services has made the training of special educators to work in rural settings a major priority. When forming recommendations for national policy, the American Council of Rural Special Education (ACRES) called for the federal goverment to recognize innovative teacher training programs that addressed critical personnel shortages in rural special education. "Federal support should encourage collaborative efforts between state education agencies and universities designed to determine positions and types of personnel needed, and devise appropriate personnel prepartion programs." (1983) The curriculum development module describes numerous approaches that may be successful for curriculum development.

Several procedural suggestions for curriculum development are made in this module. For example, it is suggested that parents and educators from rural/remote areas play a vital part in curriculum development. Methods used included a force field analysis and a modified Delphi Study. In addition, procedures are outlined for student involvement. Student input can provide valuable insight and direction. As one participant stated, "Without student involvement, theory might never merge with practice."

CONSULTANT PROCESSES FOR THE RURAL EDUCATION SPECIALIST

Since the rural special educator's time is often divided among schools, districts, or counties, it becomes essential that collaboration takes place. In order to promote the collaboration process the rural special educator must be trained in consultation strategies.

This module includes content that fosters an understanding of the consultation process and its relationship to several other variables. For example, change and how change affects individuals cognitively, behaviorally, and emotionally is examined. In addition, curriculum in communication skills, leadership styles, and effective team processes are emphasized. Hands-on experiences, simulations, and suggested activities are provided.

CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS IN RURAL SETTINGS

This module outlines cultural implications of P.L. 94-142. Cultural differences affect testing procedures, methods of instruction, and interaction with parents. A participant observer approach is emphasized. Activities selected include evaluation of bias in testing instruments, criteria for the selection of methods and materials, and the effects of language differences between home and school.

ACCESSING RESOURCES IN THE RURAL SETTING

An integral part of the rural special education curriculum is the community resources class. The foci of this course are interagency cooperation, the identification and use of rural resources, and the unique characteristics of rural life styles. The purpose of this course is to assist students in the process of analyzing rural life. As a result, they become integral and productive members of the rural community.

TEACHING STUDENTS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES WITH MOTOR IMPAIRMENTS

This course was developed to provide general information on motor impairments and etiology and to provide specific information on appropriate instructional strategies including: augmentative communication, adaptive equipment and curriculum, positioning and handling techniques, computer applications, behavior management and socialization. The course was taught using a variety of formats including lecture, demonstration, and direct experiences with clients who are motor impaired. Video tapes were used to introduce students to the wide variety of motor impairments and associated conditions. Students participated in a handling skills workshop provided by a team of physical therapists.

TEACHING STUDENTS WITH LOW-INCIDENCE HANDICAPPING CONDITIONS IN RURAL SETTINGS

This course was designed to describe issues in education and habilitation of children and youth with low-incidence handicapping conditions of deaf-blind, autism, and motor impairment. The course introduced philosophy and contemporary issues; medical and educational characteristics; assessment, curriculum and instruction; and services and resources for children and youth with low-incidence handicapping conditions.

TEACHING STUDENTS IN A RURAL COMMUNITY WHO ARE DEAF-BLIND

The purpose of this course was to provide general information regarding the characteristics of deaf-blindness as well as knowledge of specific teaching strategies. The sessions included general characteristics, auditory and visual considerations, communication strategies, instructional programming, transition planning, and local and national resources. The course was presented using a lecture format along with a variety of activities developed to provide the student with practical experiences.

TEACHING STUDENTS WITH AUTISM IN A RURAL COMMUNITY

The goal of this course was to provide the learner with current knowledge and practices in the education of children and youth with autism. The participants learned to identify the syndrome of autism general characteristics and appropriate instructional strategies and techniques. Students learned to identify and implement appropriate communication systems and behavior management techniques. Parent needs in social integration were also addressed.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

This module outlines pre-post test procedures that can be used to assess the competency level of students. Instruments are also suggested to assess leadership styles, communication styles, and attitudes toward mainstreaming.

In addition to pre-post test procedures a follow-up survey is suggested. This survey can be administered to employers of project graduates. This procedure has been particularly helpful in curriculum modification.

Mutual growth and involvement represents the tradition of Rural Special Education. It is hoped that participant and presentor alike will profit as a result of the collaboration and communication in this session. This presentation exemplified the cornerstone of rural special education: sharing resources and information.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 27

9:30 - 10:00 AM

Mary Cihak Jensen
Victoria Bernhardt
California State University
Chico, California

Finding and Keeping the Best:
Recruitment and Retention of Rural Special Educators

PURPOSE/PROBLEM

The special education job market has exerted considerable pressure upon rural school districts and counties. Schools in rural settings are forced to hire, as special educators, individuals who have little if any teaching experience, minimal preservice training, and inadequate commitment to rural communities. Further, new trends in special education demand personnel who are highly skilled specialists, capable of serving regular education teachers in diagnostic and consultative functions. These two factors combine to reduce the number of qualified applicants from which rural employers may choose.

The purposes of this presentation are to demonstrate and to recommend ways in which rural schools can upgrade the quality of potential special education teachers. During the presentation, characteristics of successful special educators will be reviewed, those characteristics will be analyzed with respect to meeting the needs of rural populations, and refined processes of recruitment, selection, and support will be offered. In particular, ideas for making the profession of special education attractive to highly skilled regular educators will be shared. Suggestions for how higher education institutions and state certification agencies may assist this process will also be discussed.

OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this presentation are as follows:

1. To list the characteristics of effective special education teachers,
2. To interpret those characteristics in light of the special needs of rural schools and changing trends in special education delivery systems,
3. To define populations from which to recruit: regular classroom teachers, instructional assistants and undergraduates;

4. To recommend recruitment incentives designed to attract the best; and

5. To define effective support and retention structures.

RURAL FOCUS

Recruiting and retaining personnel to work in rural communities are two of the largest problems facing educational administration in rural America today. Add to these general problems the need to obtain personnel with special qualifications to work with exceptional populations and one finds that recruitment and retention issues become greatly exacerbated. Special education falls into this category like almost no other profession, which can be evidenced in many ways, such as with the large numbers of emergency credentials being used in rural areas.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This presentation provides recommendations and practical suggestions for ensuring proper recruitment and retention of special education personnel to work in rural schools. These recommendations are focused on what district/county education offices, state certification agencies and university preparation programs can do to help alleviate these problems.

THEME AREA: Challenges for Rural Special Educators -
Finding Teachers Who Will Stay

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DEVELOPING PRACTICUM SUPERVISION SKILLS IN COLLEAGUE TEACHERS

National studies have revealed that present patterns of teacher supply and demand are pointing to critical teacher shortages in many areas by the 1990s (Darling-Hammond, 1984). The attrition rate of qualified, experienced teachers has grown from 30% to 60% in recent years due to teacher dissatisfaction with bureaucratic interference with teaching and lack of administrative support (AFT, 1983; NEA, 1983). A series of reports calling for reform in education have stressed the need for restructuring of teacher education programs (ATE, 1986; Carnegie Report, 1986; Holmes Group Report, 1986; NCATE Report, 1985). Reform of teacher training programs is seen as a critical component of the movement to improve the American system of public education.

The preparation of educational personnel to serve handicapped students is a national priority. Several studies have shown a shortage of appropriately trained teachers for special education programs across the country (Helge, 1981; Smith-Davis et. al., 1984; Sontag & Button, 1980). These shortages are compounded by the use of temporary out-of-field permits to hire staff, a practice that threatens the quality of services (Smith-Davis, 1985; Pipho, 1986). The demands of teaching, coupled with the stresses of a special education program, leads to "burnout" and teacher turnover (Bina, 1981; Marrs, 1983). The problem is especially critical in rural areas, where attrition rates for special educators may be as high as 50% yearly (Helge, 1984). In addition, many students enrolled in special education teacher training programs are already employed as teachers and are unable to pursue full-time studies (Spencer, Noel & Boyer-Schick, 1985). These problems must be addressed by personnel preparation programs if the continuing demands for special educators are to be met.

The Special Education Program at West Virginia University has been state approved and National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accredited to offer graduate degree/teaching certification programs in Mental Retardation, Learning Disabilities and Behavior Disorders for two decades. These programs are available on campus and also at off-campus locations through the Office of Extension and Continuing Education. Coursework is offered at five (5) sites in the WVU service area comprised of 33 counties in the northern half of the state. All classes are offered in the late afternoon and evening to allow students employed as teachers on temporary permits to attend.

Practicum experiences have been available during the academic year, across summer sessions, and more recently on-the-job. Over 50% of the current student enrollment is off-campus and fully 90% of all students are employed full-time in teaching positions, creating a heavy demand for non-traditional practicum experiences. Practicum enrollment data indicate that the majority of students request the summer or on-the-job practicum options.

The summer practicum experience is dependent upon the willingness of county school systems to offer summer programs for handicapped students and the ability of the university to provide qualified supervisory personnel. The demand for summer practicum has reached the point where the Special Education Program no longer has the resources to locate enough placements or to provide sufficient supervision. In addition, many students who have family responsibilities find it difficult to schedule six (6) weeks away from home during the summer months to complete practicum requirements. In 1983, WVU was awarded a Personnel Preparation Grant to develop and implement a Clinical Practicum Project to provide practicum experiences in on-the-job settings. The availability of clinical practicum has reduced the demand for summer practicum, but the overall increase in enrollment and the increased demand for on-the-job practicum experiences has created a need for supervision that cannot be met by existing faculty resources.

Institutions of higher education have traditionally failed to commit necessary resources to practicum supervision (ATE, 1986a). Supervisory duties are given low priority status by faculty members, with the result that inadequate time and effort is devoted to working with practicum students (McIntire, 1983). Studies have shown that the cooperating teacher is the key to effective practicum supervision (Zeichner, 1980; Zimpher et al, 1980). Practicing master teachers have years of training and experience to use in supervising practicum experiences (Blumberg, 1980). They also have knowledge of a particular school system, including administrative policies, available resources, and contact persons. But teachers need direct instruction in skills for observing lessons, providing feedback, and evaluating teaching performance to be most effective as supervisors (Emans, 1983). Effective practicum operations require a training program for cooperating teachers to develop supervisory skills systematically with practice and feedback over time.

PROGRAM CONTENT

The on-the-job practicum program at West Virginia University consists of a pre-practicum orientation session and a practicum experience provided to eligible students pursuing teaching certification in Special Education in the areas of Mental Retardation, Learning Disabilities, or Behavior Disorders. This practicum experience is offered upon completion of all other required coursework and only to students currently working in the field on temporary teaching permits. It meets all guidelines for professional experiences in teacher education established by the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE, 1986a).

Program Competencies

The practicum experience is organized around competency-based teacher education (CBTE) principles. CBTE is an instructional delivery system in which competencies are specified in behavioral terms and alternative assessment activities are scheduled (Houston & Howram, 1972). Teacher training programs that are competency based provide a flexible structure permitting individualization to meet specific student needs (Blackhurst, 1977). They also offer more objective assessment procedures for measuring student competency attainment by zeroing in on those skills in which students need more practice and refinement and by facilitating identification of alternative activities for demonstrating improvement (Berdine, Cegelka & Kelley, 1977). Fifty (50) program competencies must be demonstrated by the student during practicum; they are clustered into skills in each of the following areas: Preteaching Skills, Teaching Skills and Post teaching Skills. A listing of the competencies and documentation is provided in the Practicum Handbook.

The student and practicum supervisor schedule at least four observation sessions for the semester in which the clinical practicum is planned. Wherever possible, observations are scheduled for sites in nearby locations to reduce supervisor travel distance and time. During an observation visit the supervisor spends at least one-half day in the practicum student's classroom to observe and evaluate teaching and discuss the student's progress in competency attainment. The supervisor maintains contact by telephone or visit with the master teacher. S/he writes a summary evaluation of the students overall strengths and weaknesses in teaching, reviews all documentation provided by the master teacher and assigns the final grade.

The Practicum Handbook summarizes all requirements, procedures, and forms needed to document and evaluate competencies. The initial preassessment of competencies is jointly determined by the practicum student, the cooperating teacher and the practicum supervisor. Knowledge competencies are met by satisfactory completion of prescribed coursework for the area of specialization with a grade of B or better in each course. Performance competencies are assessed by a behavioral Q-Sort form on which students rate their proficiency on specific program competencies indicating in which areas of teaching they excel or need improvement. The preassessment process permits the practicum student to develop an Individual Personnel Training Plan (IPTP) outlining those competencies which must be demonstrated during the practicum experience to satisfy university requirements. The IPTP insures recognition of competencies acquired through on-the-job experiences while providing opportunity to practice and refine other skills to improve the student's overall teaching ability. Students are required to maintain data on their progress in achieving each of the targeted competencies by indicating the amount of classroom time spent and the type of activity engaged in.

The student and master teacher agree upon a weekly schedule for observation sessions and interviews. During observation sessions, the master teacher spends at least one hour in the practicum student's classroom to evaluate teaching and validate practicum competencies. During interviews the master teacher and student discuss the students progress (in person or by telephone) in competency attainment, strategies for improving classroom teaching, and other problems. The master teacher documents that all fifty (50) program/competencies have been demonstrated and that target competencies selected by the student for the IPTP have been completed. S/he writes a summary evaluation of the student's overall strengths and weaknesses in teaching and submits all documentation to the practicum supervisor.

Program Organization and Delivery

On-the-job practicum experiences are offered to all eligible students in the western and northern counties during the Spring semester, and the eastern and southern counties of the WVU service area during the Fall semester of each year. This scheduling facilitates assignment of practicum supervisors from the university and avoids travel across the most mountainous and least accessible areas during severe winter weather conditions.

Once eligible students have been identified, project staff contact county school systems to locate qualified master teachers to serve as cooperating teachers. Cooperating teachers are trained to provide guidance, suggestions, and constructive criticisms to practicum students on an on-going basis. They are also trained to observe teaching, offer supervisory feedback, and evaluate teaching competency within the clinical supervision model. To be eligible to supervise practicum, cooperating teachers must meet the following criteria:

1. possession of a valid West Virginia teaching ceretificate in the area of special education specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted;

2. teaching experience of at least three academic years in the area of special education specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted;

3. completion of a Master's Degree in Special Education in the area of specialization in which the practicum is to be conducted;

4. authorization from the superintendent of schools of the district in which s/he is employed for release time from instructional responsibilities for the purpose of supervising practicum students;

5. participation in a training workshop for acquisition of skills in using clinical supervision competency assessment procedures.

When all practicum students and cooperating teachers have been identified, project staff assign practicum supervisors to oversee practicum activities for groups of students in a given geographic area. Practicum supervisors maintain periodic contact with student and master teacher, provide assistance in completing required activities to document competency demonstration, observe and evaluate the student in the on-the-job classroom setting, and assign the final grade.

The Special Education Program provides practicum supervision following techniques of the clinical supervision model (Acheson &

Gall, 1980; Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969), which focuses on observation and evaluation of teaching to foster professional learning and growth (Garman, 1986). Measurement of performance in terms of behavioral objectives (Piper & Elgart, 1979) allows practicum supervisors to make data-based decisions about student acquisition of program competencies. Arranging for observation of students in their work settings allows the program to take advantage of an optimal setting for demonstrating and proving teaching skills (Grantetal, 1979; Russell, 1971). Clinical supervision of students on-the-job permits project staff to offer more realistic and functional training experiences for special education teachers.

Project staff have designed materials and procedures to train field-based master teachers in skills of observing, supervising and evaluating teaching competencies. Materials include videotapes of classroom teaching sessions to observe and critique, roleplay activities to practice supervisory feedback and consultation skills, and simulation activities to discuss problems encountered in supervision and evaluation of teaching. All materials were based on actual teaching situations to be found in special education programs in West Virginia schools and on those problems typically encountered by practicum supervisors in on-the-job settings.

Project staff conducted three (3) training sessions for cooperating teachers in addition to the pre-practicum orientation session. Training sessions were held at several regional sites within reasonable traveling distance for a group of teachers for a three-hour session one evening per week for three successive weeks. Training sessions included lecture/discussion activities guided practice, and probe assessments. Cooperating teachers who participated in training sessions received graduate credit and a stipend to cover the costs of participating in the training.

The initial training session focused on observation skills. Project staff did (1) present observation practices and forms, (2) elicit teacher scoring of observation forms via videotape, (3) conduct a discussion and comparison of ratings/comments, (4) guide teachers through another scoring with a second videotape, (5) conduct additional discussion and critique, (6) then administer a probe assessment of observation skills using a third videotape. The second training session focused on supervisory skills. Project staff did (1) present clinical supervision practices, (2) elicit teacher demonstration of skills through roleplay, (3) conduct a discussion and comparison of methods, (4) demonstrate supervision skills through a second roleplay, (5) conduct additional discussion and critique, and (6) administer a probe roleplay of supervision skills using a third roleplay for each teacher trainee. The third session focused on evalution skills. Project staff did (1) present evaluation practices for documenting and summarizing teaching competencies, (2) elicit teacher demonstration of skills through simulation activities, (3) conduct a discussion with comparison of comments, (4) guide teachers through another evaluation, with a second simulation, (5) conduct additional discussion and critique, and (6) administer a probe assessment of evaluation skills using a third simulation.

Training procedures used the collaborative consultation model to develop skills of observation, supervision and evaluation (Idol, Paolucci & Nevin, 1986). Cooperating teachers developed skills of (1) active listening, (2) problem solving, (3) feedback and (4) consultation (Conoley & Conoley, 1982; Heron & Harris, 1982; Warger & Aldinger, 1986). Learning activities that focus on guided practice with constructive criticism were stressed (Cooper, 1985; Friend, 1985; Warger & Aldinger, 1984). Teachers have been encouraged to use a peer model of supervision with primary emphasis on provision of support, guidance, and encouragement of self-assessment rather than a traditional model of critique, evaluation and judgement, since the proposed model develops teacher morale and improvement more effectively (Borko, 1986; Heishberger & Young, 1975; Joyce & Showers, 1982).

Evaluation Procedures

This project was initiated in Summer 1987. The following evaluation procedures have been proposed:

Formative Evaluation

Project staff will monitor cooperating teacher acquisition of skills in observation, supervision and evaluation of teaching on a continuing basis. After each visit by the cooperating teacher s/he will complete a self-rating form on skills and the practicum student will also rate the cooperating teachers supervisory performance. All written lesson observation forms and the summary evaluation form will be content analyzed. Comparisons of these three ratings during and after training for each cooperating teacher will be made using an interrupted time series design. Feedback will be given to each cooperating teacher on supervisory performance by the practicum supervisors at intervals throughout the practicum and upon its completion. The supervisor and the student will also complete a program evaluation form rating the effectiveness of the cooperating teacher across the practicum experience. All these rating forms will be coded, summarized and analyzed by computer.

Summative Evaluation

Data collected from all operational years will be used for summative evaluation purposes in determining if the project was effective in developing program competencies, to what extent the training procedures were successful in developing supervisory skills, whether the project was successful in decreasing teacher shortages, and to what extent the model is a workable alternative for teacher training programs.

1. Evaluation of Accomplishment of Project Goals

   a. Competency acquisition by students will be monitored by project staff who will maintain data on the number and criterion level of competencies validated during and after pratica to determine that all students demonstrate adequate teaching competencies upon completion of the program;

   b. Field-based master teachers and supervisors will be evaluated via direct observation and review of written observation and evaluation forms by project staff, as well as by informal interviews and structured course evaluation forms completed by students.

c. Impact of the project on teacher shortages will be assessed through records on the number of applicants, number of students, number of program graduates, number of graduates employed, number of graduates certified, employment location of graduates, and number of pupils served by graduates, and length of graduate employment.

2. Evaluation of Cost-Efficiency of Model

Cost accounting procedures will be used to monitor all project activities. Expenses will be assigned to development (of materials and procedures) or to program operation. Program costs per trainee served and per credit hours completed will be compared to the same cost categories for more traditional programs.

Ongoing Evaluation

Data collection procedures for the project will be incorporated into the existing evaluation plan for personnel preparation programs within the WVU Special Education Program to insure continuous monitoring and assessment of program operation in the future and to provide an information base for decision making. The on-going evaluation program consists of periodic assessment of student competency acquisition, program operation, and graduate performance. Measurement procedures designed within the Discrepancy Evaluation Model (Provus, 1971) are used to collect data from students, faculty, cooperating professionals, graduates and employers as input for decisions concerning development and modification of graduate teacher training programs in special education. Programs and program components that meet a performance criteria of 75% effectiveness are considered acceptable within this model.

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A COLLABORATIVE INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM SERVING THREE RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION COOPERATIVES

The State Board of Education of a large, sparsely populated western state recently mandated that all teachers receive 15 clock hours of inservice in learning disorders. The western half of this state covers about 40,000 square miles, is divided into 31 school districts and three special education cooperatives, and is served by 2,168 teachers. A samll teacher-education college with a viable special education program serves this region.

Currently, members of the college special education programs are offering this inservice in a unique manner. College personnel first offers the inservice to a cadre of teachers from the special education cooperative schools. (The directors of special educaton have selected the members of the cadre teams.) At the conclusion of the cadre training, the cadre teachers return to their member schools and, in turn, offer the training to local school personnel.

Objectives of the learning disability inservice training are as follows:

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the educator with knowledge of national, state, and local laws, policies and procedures affecting students with Learning Disabilities.

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the regular educator with knowledge of the developmental characteristics of all students including those with Learning Disabilities.

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the regular educator with knowledge of types of selection, administration, and interpretation of formal and informal techniques and instruments appropriate for regular elementary and secondary classroom use.

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the regular educator with an understanding of curriculum development and modification as it applies to students with Learning Disabilities.

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the regular educator with skills and techniques for providing an emotionally safe learning environment.

OBJECTIVE: The training program will provide the regular educator with a working knowledge of the types of communication likely to take place within and outside of the school setting specific to children with special needs.

(During the presentation, occasional anecdotes and appropriate bits of rural humor will be interspersed by the principal presentor.)

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 27

10:20 - 11:20 AM

Mary Anne Sampon
Project LIFT Coordinator

PROJECT LIFT: A RURAL FAMILY-FOCUSED EARLY INTERVENTION MODEL

Since the legislation of Public Law 94-457, birth to three programs for children with disabilities have become a major focus of concern with early childhood special educators. This becomes more crucial in terms of designing a quality program to meet the needs of families of infants with severe/multiple disabilities or who are severely chronically ill who also live in rural areas.

In a rural area, parents experience frustration in a variety of ways. Transportation difficulties associated with long distances between their own homes and the tertiary medical centers where their specialists reside, combine with exasperation over the lack of respite, nursing care, or even educational services in their own area. In addition, many lack the knowledge or the resources to shift through rural social services, health, and mental health management systems to acquire the assistance they need for their child. They often feel isolated and without formal or informal support systems to help them cope with the challenges they face in raising a child with severe disabilities.

Project LIFT, a three year model demonstration grant, was designed to address the many issues facing families in rural areas. Crucial to this model is a family-focused home-based, early intervention service delivery system.

Project LIFT Overview

One of the major goals of LIFT is to develop a model that could be replicated in other rural areas across the country. The LIFT model encompasses the following features: a) a family-focused intervention approach including the development of an IFSP (Individual Family Service Plan) which includes both child and family goals; b) case coordination designed to assist families in identifying and obtaining community resources and facilitate interagency collaboration and cooperation; c) home-based interventions focusing on three infant-oriented components: 1) Responsive Play, 2) Making Things Happen, 3) Function Abilities, and four family-oriented components: 1) Family Adjustment and Acceptance, 2) Routines and Family Functions, 3) Social Supports, 4) Knowledge and Use of Community Resources; and d) a modified transdisciplinary team approach to interventions which includes an infant specialist, motor specialist, and communication specialist as team members.

Project LIFT was specifically designed to meet the needs of infants and toddlers under three years of age who have a documented exceptional need or a biological condition that is known to manifest in substantial functional limitations (at least a 50% delay relative to gestation age) in two or more developmental areas or to manifest a severe chronic illness which interferes with daily functioning for more than three months in a year and causing hospitalization for more than one month in a year.

Individual Family Service Plan

The central structure for the home visit model is based on the IFSP, or Individual Family Service Plan. This plan documents both family and child strengths and weaknesses as based on family and child assessments administered during initial home contacts. Family assessments include:

1) A survey of Family Strengths and Needs - which measures the family's strengths and allows them to identify their needs in the areas of financial, informational, support, and recreational.

2) A Daily Routine - which maps out a general schedule of daily events within the home setting and the quality of interaction between family members and child during these events.

3) An Eco-map - which provides a visual sketch of the support systems in place for the family and the quality of this support, and lastly

4) A checklist of community resources the family is aware of and may wish to utilize.

The child assessments consist of: 1) The Carolina - a developmental assessment for infants and toddlers, 2) The Brinker-Lewis hierarchy - to assess the child's level of contingency responsiveness, and 3) the SARS - a scale which measures interaction between child and parent, and parent and child.

When these assessments have been completed, the family and the case coordinator jointly determine both family and child goals. These goals then become the basis for intervention within the home.

Although child goals have long been the primary focus of an individual education plan, the addition of family goals, particularly those generated by the family members themselves is fairly unique to the early intervention models of the past fifteen years. LIFT philosophy adheres to the principle that the child, rather than being a lone entity is rather part of a family unit whose behaviors and functions interface one upon the other and whose mutual interaction is the key to success or failure for the child and the family unit as a whole. Therefore, by focusing on family needs, the interventionist is in turn also addressing the needs of the child. Goals may be very personal such as helping one family member obtain a counselor or a support group, or more global such as assisting the family in developing better support to one another during times of crises. Like child goals, specific criteria are developed to measure success and document progress. Child goals will include those to develop functional abilities in the developmental domains (including specific therapy goals), goals to develop contingency awareness (an understanding of cause and effect behavior), and responsibility to the environment, and goals to enhance child/parent and parent/child interactions. Goals might include developing a mode of communication, promoting engagement in interactive games with a parent or other caregiver, or utilizing an adaptive switch devise to develop contingency responsiveness in the child.

Targeted goals are implemented in weekly home interventions. In addition, as needs change or families request, and at least every three months, goals are reviewed and revised or updated as necessary. Data is collected regularly to document progress and completion of specific goals. In this way, both family and child can benefit from the structured intervention LIFT provides.

Case Coordination

As was mentioned previously, each family has an assigned case coordinator. Perhaps a better name for this interventionist would be co-case coordinator as one of the primary emphasis of the LIFT model is to teach families to become their own advocates and case coordinators. The case coordinator is assigned to a family based on both the primary needs of the child and those of the family as a whole. As LIFT has a modified transdiciplinary team, if, for example a child's primary needs appear to be in the motor area, the case coordinator would be the occupational therapist.

The case coordinator not only acts as the primary interventionist but also is responsible for contacting other agencies or community services the family may need; arranging for joint staffings with therapists or other professionals who may be working with the child or family to maintain continuity of service delivery systems, and accompanying the family on clinic or medical visits to the tertiary medical centers to provide support, information gathering or sharing with physicians and specialists to assist the family in interpreting medical diagnosis and terminology, and to insure that follow-up takes place once the family returns to their own community. In addition, the case coordinator assists the family in the transition from 0-3 to the 3-5 school program by contacting school personnel, helping the family arrange for school observations and providing information to the family on possible classroom options for least restrictive environment.

LIFT has developed procedural guidelines for implementing case coordination services to the families of the project which include a format for providing doctors and other professionals with regular progress reports on the child, forms for summarizing agency contacts and specifying assigned tasks and timelines specific to each family for use in interagency staffings, and a transition plan for children who are turning three or who will be moving into a different program. Staff are also being trained to orient families to community systems and agencies as well as to feel more comfortable with medical professionals to elicit self-advocacy for themselves and their child by the time their child turns three. More and more responsibilities are turned over to the parent towards case coordination as time goes on to facilitate this goal.

Staff have found that rural families need the support and coordination of services that LIFT provides, and as families are assisted in this fashion, they become more informed and aware of the services they need for their child and how to get them. In addition, case coordination provides a positive framework for interagency collaboration and consistency of service to the family.

Developing a Contingency Responsive Environment

Because of the severity of handicapping conditions of children served by project LIFT, and the probability that these children might have very few interactive behaviors within their repertoire, it was necessary to develop a program component that could elicit more responsibility from the child to the environment and vice versa. This would include a system of intervention that would teach the child a cause and effect relationship between their behavior and something happening within the environment. The first step in this system is to show the child that when he/she does something, then in turn, something happens. The second step in this system is to help the child learn that a specific behavior makes a specific thing happen. For example, if a child with random arm movements accidentally hits a switch which operates the tape recorder playing music, the first step is to assist the child in repeating the behavior until he recognizes that something he did actually started the music. The second step is to help the child isolate an arm movement as the behavior which elicited the musical response. As the child becomes aware of this cause and effect relationship between something he does and a response in the environment, he begins to comprehend his own control over the environment which leads him to further exploration and interaction which in turn stimulates future learning and growth.

LIFT staff have found switch toys to be extremely beneficial in teaching contingency awareness to very young children with disabilities. Switches commonly made by LIFT staff include batting devices, various plate switches, and cheek switches. These switches are connected to battery operated toys and equipment such as fans, tape players, and radios, toy animals or vehicles, vibrators or any other objects the child may be interested in.

As the child becomes more sophisticated in his/her imitations, other cause and effect toys and materials can be utilized to take the place of switches. However, for some of the children with severe physical limitations, switches continue to be an excellent learning tool.

Videotaping to Analyze Interactions

A major area of focus for the LIFT model is the interaction patterns between parent and child and other family members and child. In order to analyze interactions and provide a framework for intervention in these interactive patterns of behavior, LIFT families are videotaped on a regular basis. An assessment tool, the SARS, which looks not only at the child's responsiveness to the parent during interaction but also the parent's responsiveness to the child, is utilized to score videotapes and plan guidelines for possible interventions in this area. Families view the videotapes with interventionists to provide additional feedback on what they feel to be the strengths and weaknesses of the interactions and to help pinpoint areas to work on.

For example, if, while scoring a videotape, the interventionist determines that although the child responds best to tactile stimulation from the parent, the parent seldom touches the infant, she may ask the parent to view the videotape and simply suggest to the parent that he/she notice which cues the child seems to respond best to (or what he/she does that the child appears to like the most). By discussing the tape together after joint viewing, the interventionist can point out that the parent "made the child smile or move about more when he/she touched him/her". Or the parent may notice this and decide that this is something he/she would like to work on.

Another type of approach would be to determine a way to help the parent tune in to a child who gives very few or very subtle cues and use a specific response pattern to increase the child's cueing behavior or expand his own repertoire of responses.

By utilizing videotapes on a regular basis, progress can be noted by parent and interventionist not only in the area of interactions but in other areas of child development as well. Contrary to the idea that families might find videotaping to be intrusive in the home setting, families enjoy the opportunity to view progress in such a graphic context and have been very willing to participate in this aspect of the project.

Concluding Remarks

Project LIFT is now in its second year of funding. At this time, as a rural model, LIFT's strengths lie in its individualization of programming to families based on each family and child's unique set of strengths and needs, its attention to family support and accessing community resources for families and its commitment to providing a comprehensive set of services including education, therapies, and case coordination to isolated areas of the state. Family satisfaction and child progress to date would imply that the LIFT model is a viable alternative to quality early intervention for children with disabilities who reside in rural areas. As the model continues to develop and more data is collected, it is hoped that the outcome of this project will provide a model for 0-3 delivery services which could be replicated in other rural areas throughout the United States.

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Interdisciplinary Team Training: The Project BRIDGE Model for Facilitating Exemplary Services

INTRODUCTION

This session is designed to present educators with an overview of a national training program that has been effective in improving interdisciplinary team functioning in both rural and urban communities and to assist them in adapting the model to their local needs. During the presentation, the following six objectives will be addressed. Participants will:

1. Learn about Project BRIDGE: background, overview and how to arrange a training in their area.
2. Identify their own team memberships.
3. Assess their own participation as a team member.
4. Apply a 5-step decision-making process in the provision of exemplary services.
5. Consider the role of interdisciplinary team training in effective team functioning and parent-professional collaboration in a rural setting.
6. Develop strategies for adapting the BRIDGE model to their communities.

Portions of this session involve attendee participation. Therefore, this paper will focus on the following selected content: 1) the role of interdisciplinary team training, 2) the background and general overview of Project BRIDGE, 3) rural issues, 4) content from the BRIDGE program, and 5) contact resources for obtaining additional information and arranging training in local areas.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS: The Role of Interdisciplinary Team Training

Since the passage of Public Law 94-142 (The Education for all Handicapped Children Act), professionals have been expected to participate as members of interdisciplinary teams. Emphasis on the team approach is based on the premise that representatives from several disciplines along with parents, can work together to make better decisions concerning children with handicaps than can individuals acting alone. Teams now assume responsibilities that were unknown to them prior to 1975. However, the literature cites numerous difficulties that are creating barriers to effective team functioning. Recommendations regarding ways to improve team process have been made. Team training seems to be the recommended key to alleviating many of these barriers and to ensuring efficient and effective team functioning in the future. Yet, there is little evidence of team training in special education training programs or in other fields outside of special education. In short, professionals are trained as professional experts, to give service to individuals, not as members of a team that coordinate the delivery of services to clients and families. No doubt improved interdisciplinary process will result in increased client and family satisfaction and better functional status for clients.

BACKGROUND OF PROJECT BRIDGE

The American Academy of Pediatrics, which represents 28,000 pediatricians in North and South America, along with a variety of groups that collaborate with the academy, share a common conviction that the key to meeting the needs of children with disabilities is the establishment of an effective interdisciplinary team approach to the delivery of services. They believe that this approach must be based on a shared set of assumptions and a common knowledge-base about the needs and treatment of these children and their families, on methods for coordinating team members' efforts, and on ways to develop team decision-making. They stress that well functioning interdisciplinary teams provide tremendous benefits to children with disabilities and their families and to professionals. Best services draw upon the skills and knowledge of all team members and address all the interrelated needs of each situation; emotional, social, economic, educational and medical. The needs of the whole family drives the system. Teams also provide benefits to their professional members. Opportunities for collaboration with others and input from a variety of sources add to professional growth enabling members to test their own assumptions and subject them to review. Lastly, effective team decision-making ensures that all members have participated in and are satisfied with and committed to the decisions made. As a result, appropriate service plans are developed and implemented.

The developers of the Project BRIDGE concept identified several elements that characterize a cohesive team. These essential elements are:

> A Superoridnate Goal. Teams have an overriding mission or reason for working together. For interdisciplinary teams, the goal is to maximize the developmental potential of each child and family.
>
> Interdependence. Members need each other to accomplish their goals. Interdisciplinary teams recognize that...
>
> - no one area of the child's functioning is the exclusive concern of any one discipline,
> - no one discipline should limit others' participation in the decision-making process, and that
> - each team member should be encouraged to share observations and contribute recommendations.
>
> Commitment. Members are committed to the team concept; individuals don't go it alone.

> In the interdisciplinary team, members are committed to the concept that this approach is the most viable way to provide workable alternatives for the child and family.
>
> Accountability. Teams function within a context. They answer to a host organization or other entity. The interdisciplinary team in early services is accountable first to the child with disabilities and the family, then to the hospital, agency or other organization in which it functions, and ultimately to the community.
>
> Leadership. Teams must have leadership to flourish. They need a guiding force who helps the team realize its potential and meet its goals. Whether the leader is appointed, elected or emergent, the group must be able to count on someone to help steer it to achieve its ends.[1]

The problems of children with disabilities and their families are multi-faceted, complex and difficult. With this recognition and commitment to the improvement of team functioning, Project BRIDGE was developed and funded.

WHAT IS PROJECT BRIDGE?

Project BRIDGE is the first national education program designed specifically to help teams improve their functioning and decision-making skills in the context of exemplary early services for children with disabilities, age birth to three and their families. It is a three-year contract that was funded by the United States Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services and sponsored by the American Academy of Pediactrics. During the past three years the training program has been pilot tested, adapted to local areas, and successfully implemented throughout the United States in both urban and rural settings.

Overview of the Project:[2]

The Project was divided into four phases. In Phase I, from October, 1984 to September, 1985, the design and development of the education package was undertaken. A Project Advisory Committee (PAC), composed of individuals representing the areas of medicine, education, nursing, psychiatry, social work, occupational therapy and parenting, was named.

The major content task of the PAC in Phase I was to define the scope of the material to be covered and to specifically delineate those contemporary theories and philosophies to be conveyed to the learner. The PAC named a five person Program Task Force (PTF) to generate specific content material to expand upon the conceptual constructs initiated by the PAC.

The materials were pilot tested on several interdisciplinary teams in 1985, and modified based on feedback and evaluations from participating team members.

Phase II, October, 1985 to September, 1986, began with finalization of the video and print materials for the one-day program to be presented on March 6, 1986. The content of the program focused on exemplary early services, team dynamics and team decision-making, all within the framework of the recognition of the value, worth and potential of every infant.

The one-day education program was delivered on March 6, 1986, utilizing teleconference technology. On that day, 3,000 team members participated in 75 pre-selected sites across the United States. The morning session consisted of a three hour teleconference presentation, including three prerecorded video segments, a live panel discussion, and two question and answer sessions between the participants and the panel. The afternoon session was designed as a three hour facilitated workshop in which the participants utilized the information from the morning session to analyze their team´s strengths and weaknesses, and develop an action plan.

Immediately following the teleconference, participant responses to selected evaluation items were phoned in from approximately one-third of the sites. Over 80% of the participants rated the program positively in the followibng areas: content, contribution, and recommendation to others to attend. An in-depth evaluation was conducted by the Center for Educational Development, University of Illinois, based on three evaluation forms completed by participants and one by the facilitator.

Telephone evaluations were conducted in July, 1986, with several teams who participated in the one-day program and explored how the education program led to improved team decision-making. Using the evaluation results, the Project BRIDGE educational materials were revised.

The third phase of the project, took place between September, 1986 and October, 1987. It involved regional dissemination of the revised education materials through the American Association of University Affiliated Programs (AAUAP). Ten regional centers were selected and ten regional coordinators were identified. Regional coordinators marketed the availability of the materials and piloted the materials through at least three presentations in their respective regions. The results of the pilot efforts are still being evaluated.

After the successful completion of Phases I - III, the project was extended and is currently in its´ fourth phase. Activities this year include revision of materials by the American Academy of Pediatrics to reflect updated information on new legislation and family support issues and continued training opportunities made available through the Regional Education Centers.

Overview of the Training Program:[3]

BRIDGE means, "Building Relationships for Infants with Disabilities through Group Education." This program provides a one-day training workshop to help interdisciplinary teams improve their functioning and decision-making strategies. The purpose of Project BRIDGE is to illustrate exemplary early services to children with or at risk for, developmental disabilities while presenting a systematic decision-making structure. While the 0 - 3 population has been its focus, the format and content is appropriate for any service provider who functions as a member of a team providing services to clients with developmental disabilities and their families. The training is a practical action-oriented approach to applying essential components of team decision-making and team dynamics. An emphasis is on strengthening the role of families and parent-professional relationships while developing strategies for improving each teams functioning.

The objectives of the training session are to:

1. Use a systematic decision-making process.
2. Identify common behaviors typically inhibiting team functioning.
3. Identify techniques that enhance communication and information gathering.
4. Assess your role on the team.
5. Assess your team's decision-making "health".
6. Develop strategies that will improve your teams overall effectiveness.
7. Understand exemplary services.

Participants: Professionals in the fields of medicine, nursing, speech, nutrition, physical therapy, occupational therapy, education, psychology, social work, audiology, parenting, and other health fields. Parent advocates are also included.

Participants have been required to register as a team of 3 - 8 members. Hospital-based teams have been required to include a physician on their team; community teams are strongly encouraged to do so.

Program Format: The educational program is divided into two sessions, each three hours in length. The morning session is a video.

The video portion includes a panel discussion and a question and answer session. The panel members are:

DIANE BRICKER, Ph.D., a Professor of Special Education and Director of the Early Intervention Program at the Center on Human Development at the University of Oregon. Dr. Bricker works closely with programs serving young children with disabilities and their families and with many public agencies and school systems on problems of disabilities in early childhood.

DIANE CRUTCHER, Executive Director of the National Down Syndrome Congress and a member of the President's Committee on the Handicapped. The parent of a child with Down Syndrome, Ms. Crutcher has been an extremely active participant in many organizations concerned with issues of developmental disabilities.

MICHAEL GILCHRIST, M.D., a Fellow of the American Academy of Pediatrics and active in its Section on Child Development. He is a practicing Pediatrician in Chelmsford, MA, with an extensive background in caring for children with special needs.

PHYLLIS MAGRAB, Ph.D., Professor of Pediatrics and Director of the Child Development Center at Georgetown University. Dr. Magrab has a background in child psychology. She has consulted with numerous local, state and national programs on planning and coordinating services to children with disabilities and their families.

The afternoon session is a facilitated workshop applying the educational concepts from the morning.

Program Content: The morning session includes instructional content on the following topics:

1. 5-step decision-making process
2. Team dynamic issues including individual characteristics, group characteristics, situational factors, group process and group outcomes
3. Conflict, status and leadership in teams
4. Exemplary early service issues
5. Parental involvement in the team process
6. Evolution of teams over time
7. Inter- and intra-team communication
8. Potential of infants with disabilities
9. Interaction of team dynamics and decision-making

Workshop: The afternoon session of the program is a 3-hour facilitated workshop. In the workshop session, participants complete self and team assessments, analyze a case study, and develop an action plan for improving their own team functioning.

Continuing Education Credits: This education program is approved for six hours of Category 1 credit toward the Physician's Recognition Award of the American Medical Association and six hours of PREP credit by the American Academy of Pediatrics. Participants from other disciplines receive a program synopsis and a statement of attendance to submit to their accreditation organization.

RURAL ISSUES

The Developmental Disabilities Institute (DDI) became a Project BRIDGE Regional Education Center in 1986. From our experience with the project, we identified several issues unique to rural areas. These issues centered around the following problems: Team identification, team membership roles, establishing team identity, and implementing effective team process.

Team Identification: Many rural professionals did not recognize their "membership" on any interdisciplinary team or teams. This may be due to their having a small client population with developmental disabilities, participating with a number of different agencies in different locations, and/or general lack of recognition of team efforts being implemented. Training efforts to alleviate this problem would center around team identification exercises as well as identification and rating of the effectiveness of current modes of communication being used between professionals and with families i.e. face-to-face meetings, phone contact, conference, phone calls, written reports, letters, teleconferencing, etc. Plans for improved functioning would include these considerations.

Team Membership Roles: Roles and responsibilities of team members are often loosely defined or not defined at all. Coordination, implementation, and evaluation (monitoring) are key to successful team functioning. Training to address these potential deficiencies include identification of who is currently acting as coordinator, information disseminator, and plan monitor. These positions can then be affirmed and institutionalized or negotiated. The functions may shift between members and kept flexible, as the team determines. In some instances, an agency, rather than an individual may, be assigned these roles.

Establishing Team Identity: Once professionals are able to identify their team memberships and roles and responsibilities, they can then develop a plan to create an awareness of the "team" as an entity among team members and within the community. Training may focus on developing plans to solidify the team concept and visibility.

Implementing Team Process: Even in the most informal and geographically distant circumstances, implementing a team decision-making process can greatly improve team functioning and client outcomes. Training efforts may include one or (optimally) all members of both "formal," or well-defined, and "informal," or loosely defined, teams. Project BRIDGE provides a 5-step decision-making process to help strength team functioning in this area.

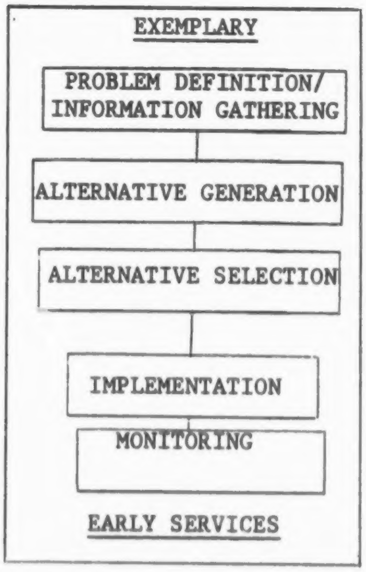
SELECTED CONTENT FROM THE BRIDGE PROGRAM

The BRIDGE training program provides a structure for decision-making within the context of Exemplary Early Services. it also has an extensive section on the important impact team dynamics have on the decision-making process. Charts A & B present a brief outline of these two aspects of the program. The authors refer readers to the BRIDGE Participant Handbook and Training Program for a comprehensive view of these concepts.

CHART A

DECISION-MAKING FOR EXEMPLARY EARLY SERVICES

The 5-step Decision-Making Process as it applies to Exemplary Early Services



Members collect and present sufficient data for the team to identify and state the the problem clearly.

Members propose as many solutions as possible.

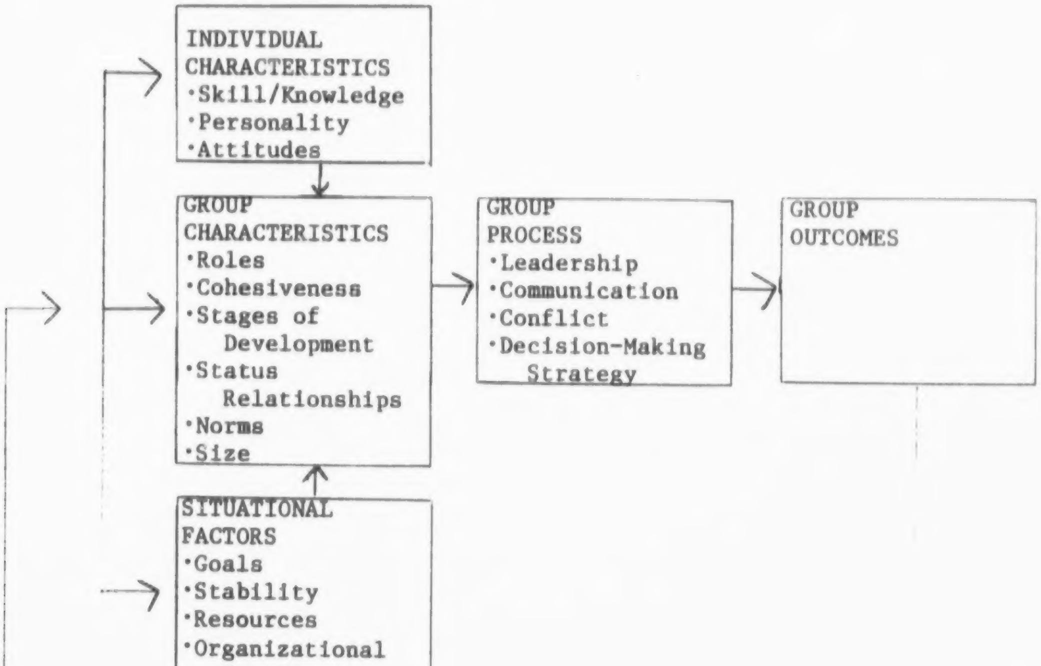
The team evaluates alternatives, selects the most viable and plans implementation and monitoring activities.

The team implements the service plan.

The team evaluates according to the plan generated and adjusts as needed.

CHART B

TEAM DYNAMICS AND THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS



ARRANGING A TRAINING

Below is a listing of Regional Coordinators for Project BRIDGE. They can answer questions about the project and assist those who are interested in participating in a BRIDGE training program. Many coordinators wil also be able to individualize the program to the unique needs of a group wishing to receive the training.

Project BRIDGE Regional Coordinators

Region I CT ME MA NH RI VT	Marie M. Cullinane, R.N., M.S. The Developmental Evaluation Clinic The Children´s Hospital 300 Longwood Avenue Boston, MA 02115 (617) 735-6501
Region II NJ NY PR VI	Elizabeth Kuhlman Lydia Bermudez (Puerto Rico) UAF - UMDNJ Robert Wood Johnson Medical School 675 Hoes Lane - Tr. 3 Piscataway, NJ 08854-5635 (201) 463-447
Region III DE D.C. MD VA PA WV	Robert B. Johnson, M.D. Kennedy Institute 602 College Avenue (home) Lutherville,MD 21093 (301) 561-3293
Region IV AL FL GA KY MS NC SC TN	Fred J. Biasini, Ph.D. University of Alabama at Birmingham Sparks Center for Developmental and Learning Disorders 1720 Seventh Avenue, South Birmingham, AL 35233 (205) 934-2452
Region V IL IN MI MN OH WI	Carol N. Kent, Ed.D. Developmental Disabilities Institute Wayne State University University Health Center - Suite 6E 4201 St. Antoine Detroit, MI 48201 (313) 577-2654
Region VI AR LA NM OK TX	Alan K. Bird, Ph.D. University of Texas Health Science Center University Affiliated Center 200 Treadway Plaza Exchange Park Dallas, TX 75235 (214) 688-7117

Regional Coordinators (continued)

Region VII IA KS MO NE	Robert Bacon Iowa University Affiliated Facility University Hospital School Iowa City, IA 52242 (319) 356-1335
Region VIII CO MT ND SD UT WY	Cecilia Rokusek Deb Scherschligt South Dakota University Affiliated Program Center for Developmental Disabilities 414 East Clark Vermillion, SD 57069 (605) 677-5311
Region IX AZ CA NV Am. Samoa Guam N.Marianas Trust Terr.	Margaret H. Briggs, Ph.D. Sam Chan, Ph.D. Shirley Vulpe, Ed.D., O.T.R. University Affiliated Program Children's Hospital of Los Angeles P.O. Box 54700 Los Angeles, CA 90054 (231) 669-2300
Region X ID OR WA	John Keiter, Ph.D. Crippled Children's Division Oregon Health Sciences University P.O. Box 574 Portland, OR 97207-0574 (503) 220-5688
Alaska	Mary Lou Hanson 1200 Airport Heights - Suite 140 Anchorage, AK 99508 (907) 264-1807
Hawaii	Galen Chock, M.D. 321 North Kuakini #513 Honolulu, HI 96817 (808) 521-6554
Consultant	Donna K. Batres c/o American Academy of Pediatrics P.O. Box 927 (141 Northwest Point Boulevard) Elk Grove Village, IL 60009-0927 (312) 981-7383

BRIDGE References

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[3] "Program Synopsis: Project BRIDGE," American Academy of Pediatrics.

CK:101

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USING TELECOURSES FOR CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: ARE THEY EFFECTIVE?

The Province of British Columbia is a vast geographical area combining mountains, wilderness, ocean and high plains with a sparce, widely scattered population. Coupled with this remoteness is the fact that, as the province was being developed, the three government supported universities were all built within a few miles of one another, in the most southwesterly corner. During the past decade, several steps have been taken to alleviate this inequity, including special government funding to provide for the development and delivery of telecourses which combine videotapes, study guides, textbooks, and teleconferencing in a comprehensive learning package.

This paper will examine the B.C. model for the development, delivery and program evaluation of distance education courses, and will explore the rationale and procedures behind this development. Two courses will be discussed in detail: Diagnosis and Remediation in Mathematics and Education in the Small Community. The latter focuses on using the community as a resource in rural or small communities. Each of these courses, plus the model upon which they were built, will have practical implications for those educators responsible for inservice or continuing professional education of rural special educators.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 27

11:25 - 11:55 AM

R. Fletcher
Jack T. Cole
New Mexico State University
Arlene Strumor
New Mexico State Department of Education

Interagency Collaboration Among Rural Special Education Programs: How Is It Done and Is It Working

Public Law 94-142 requires that local education agencies (LEAs) generating less than $7,500 through the child count formula under the Education of the Handicapped Act-Part B (EHA-B) either (a) submit consolidated applications or (b) use the State Education Agency (SEA) to provide child services directly [20 U.S.C. Sec. 1414 c(1) (2) (A) (B) (C)]. Although all fifty states and the trust territories are affected by the requirement, limited information is available as to the mechanisms used by different SEAs to meet the minimum allocation requirement. This study responds to the information needs of rural educators, policy makers, and legislators seeking descriptive data addressing the status of existing interagency collaborations among rural school districts across states. The researchers surveyed the state directors of special education in all states and trust territories. The study was guided by the following four research questions:

1. How are LEA collaborative services provided and what are the legal authorizations for such collaborative services?
2. When were LEA collaboratives enacted in relation to Public Law 94-142?

3. What are the SEAs' levels of satisfaction with existing collaborative systems among their LEAs?
4. What do SEAs perceive as the strengths and weaknesses of the systems in their states?

Study Design

The authors, in collaboration with the New Mexico State Department of Education, Special Education Unit, developed and disseminated, via telecommunications, survey forms to all fifty states and seven trust territories in early November 1987. Follow-up telephone interviews were conducted with state education agencies (SEAs) not responding by mid-December. The surveys and telephone follow-up communications culminated in a 100% response rate from the fifty states.

Initial data received from trust territories suggest that territories generally function as single school districts (e.g., Washington D.C., Guam), and that it would not benefit the study to pursue regional collaborative information from the trust territories. Based on these early findings, follow-up activities were discontinued with the trust territories, and the study was limited to the fifty states.

Preliminary findings, which follow, identify the number of states by the type of collaborative systems that are in place for each state and analyze the systems by: (a) authoritative base, (b) increase in state efforts toward LEA collaboratives since enactment of Public Law 94-142, (c) SEA satisfaction with existing systems, and (d) characteristics of collaboratives identified as "very satisfactory" by respective SEAs.

The terms "collaborative effort" and "collaborative" are used inclusively in this study to mean any formalized system of cooperation between or among school districts (LEAs) along the administrative continuum from loosely knit inter-district agreements to legislated intermediate education units (IEUs) and boards of educational cooperatives (BOCES). Reference to any particular systems of collaboration, exclusively, are specifically named.

Primary Authoritative Bases for State Collaborative Systems

States are clearly obligated to insure free appropriate public education in all school agencies within their respective jurisdictions whether LEAs are located in a rural isolated setting or an urban site. This obligation of states to assure quality services regardless of location has resulted in some thirty-six states (72%) legislating or regulating systems of collaboration among their LEAs.

Authorization for these states' collaborative systems, for analysis purposes, are categorized under four legal processes: (a) IEUs or BOCES defined as, "any public authority, other than an LEA, which is under the general supervision of an SEA and established by state law for the purpose of providing free public education on a regional basis" [20 U.S.C. Sec. 1401(22)]; (b) statutorily established consortia/cooperatives which are designed to provide participating LEAs with joint responsibility for implementing programs; (c) state board of education (SBE) regulated centers or cooperatives; and (d) other consolidated applications under Education of the Handicapped Act-Part B funds. Research by Doris Helge (1984) reviewed five studies by the National Rural Project to ascertain the impact of educational collaboratives on rural education. Results identified four structures similar to the authoritative bases used in this survey of the fifty SEAs, however, the Helge report categorized by function while this study categorizes primarily by governance.

Of the fifty SEAs reporting, thirty-six states (72%) identify state authorized systems. Specifically, twenty-one states (42%) report IEUs or BOCES; ten (20%) identify legislated collaboratives other than IEUs or BOCES; and five (10%) have SBE regulated cooperatives. In addition, eight states (16%) report other authoritative bases such as EHA-B applications; and six states (12%) have no formalized state-authorized systems. Changes in state systems have occurred as recently as 1984, according to respondents. Several SEAs, during interviews, expressed a desire to seek legislation to alter their current systems, but further indicated that the planning stages are just beginning.

Increase in State Efforts Toward LEA Collaboratives

SEAs initially discerned the need to consolidate services for handicapped children at the time that states mandated special education services in the public schools, irrespective of the status of federal legislation. However, to suggest that Public Law 94-142 does not affect collaborative efforts would be to understate the impact of the Education of All Handicapped Children Act--Part B on service delivery. SEAs that responded to the question regarding initiation dates for the existing systems of LEA collaboration report that sixteen states had IEUs or some other legislated system for consolidating resources among districts (i.e., IEUs and BOCES) prior to the enactment of Public Law 94-142. By 1988, twenty-one states had legislated IEUs or BOCES for an increase of 24% since the enactment of the Law.

The 1988 survey results support earlier findings (Helge, 1981) that school districts and cooperatives have developed interagency agreements not only to meet the $7,500 minimum provision of Public Law 94-142, but to facilitate free, appropriate public eduction.

State Education Agency Satisfaction with Existing Systems

An expressed desire by some SEAs to change current systems implies continued dissatisfaction with some existing systems' abilities to respond to current demands. Questions arise whether or not SEAs are presently satisfied with their established systems for collaboration and, if so, for what reasons. Are there indeed some overriding issues to be considered should a state without a formal system for school district collaboration desire to initiate such a system?

When SEAs were asked if they are: (a) not satisfied, (b) neutral, or (c) very satisfied with the ability of their present systems to address Public Law 94-142 compliance issues; twenty-six SEAs (52%) report that they are "very satisfied"; twelve (24%) are neutral regarding their systems for LEA collaboration; three (6%) are "not satisfied"; and nine SEAs (18%) did not respond to that particular question.

The most frequently reported mechanism for LEA collaboration is the IEU, with which the twenty-one user SEAs report that 57% are "very satisfied" with their IEU system. Legislated regional cooperative or consortia states report that 60% of the SEAs are highly satisfied with their cooperatives. SBE regulated centers or cooperatives and "other processes", such as SEA contracts with LEAs, have only 40% and 50% of their SEAs rating the systems as highly satisfactory. Of the six states with no guidelines for cooperatives, 33% of the SEAs were satisfied to leave collaborative efforts to the LEAs' initiative.

It appears that no single system for collaboratives emerges as the panacea for all states seeking to satisfactorily meet the requirements of Public Law 94-142. What then are the common characteristics shared among collaborative systems which are rated as highly satisfactory?

Perceived Strengths and Weaknesses in Collaborative Systems Among LEAs

With the percentage of SEAs indicating satisfation with their collaborative systems varying between 40% and 60%, an analysis of the perceived strengths and weaknesses among the systems is useful. Seven clusters of common characteristics surface among systems identified by their SEAs as satisfactorily addressing the compliance issues of Public Law 94-142.

Positive characteristics appear to be: (a) flexibility of configurations, (b) responsiveness to the membership districts regarding services and programs for special-needs children and regular education, (c) planned organizational procedures with representation on policy boards from local member districts, (d) equality of personnel employment benefits between the collaborative and membership districts, (e) capability of the fiscal agent to serve as single purchasing agent for member districts, (f) authorization to receive direct state subsidies for collaborative overhead costs and pupil reimbursements for inter-district classes, and (g) ability to seek federal and state grants.

Common characteristics of concerns or perceived weaknesses of collaboratives, identified as essential for prior planning sessions, fall under four categories: (a) state subsidy, (b) instability, (c) data requirements, and (d) classroom sites.

1. State Subsidy--Collaboratives are not solvent if solely dependent on contracts and funds from LEAs. There needs to be a level of basic state subsidy.
2. Instability--It can be too easy for LEAs to be admitted to or withdraw from a collaborative. SEAs need ways to adjust membership configurations.
3. LEA Requirements--Data requirements from state and federal governments are not directed to collaboratives. SEAs must still go directly to LEAs to monitor.

4. Site Acquisition--Housing for shared inter-district programs can cause dilemmas. These programs need to use LEA classrooms for space to assure least restrictive environment (LRE). Frequently the space available is not the most centralized. Prior planning to establish guidelines for LEA administrators would be a good preventive measure.

Implications for Planning

Previous studies regarding fiscal retrenchment, state education agency coordination efforts, and rural delivery mechanisms identified several constraints to providing cooperative special education and related services. Some of these constraints were due to economics, lack of staff resources, "turf" conflicts, and political ideology (perceived backlash emerging against the costs and demands of special education) (Farrow & Rogers, 1983; Greenan & Phelps, 1980; Helge, 1984; Schenet, 1982; Thomas & Reese, 1982; Weatherman, 1983; & Worthington, 1984).

Responses by the fifty state education agency directors of special education or their staff representatives indicate that the constraints identified in previous studies, in some instances, still remain. The accomodation of prudential concerns and humanitarian forces is a difficult task that pervades education, particularly education for the handicapped (Wiley, 1968; Thomas & Reese, 1982). However, state directors generally concur that collaboration among school districts in a cooperative spirit can indeed enable states and their political subdivisions (SEAs and LEAs) to respond in a highly satisfactory manner to economic constraints caused by diminishing state resources and perceived concerns over special education demands.

In closing, characteristics of effective collaboration may be found among any of the formal administrative structures for collaboratives; however, the mere presence of collaboratives do not, at the same time, guarantee problem free delivery of service. LEA administrators must be willing to be cooperative and to mutually problem solve. Preplanning for such issues as equity of size, state support, stability of membership, staff employment, and ability of membership configurations to change (e.g., some or all of membership districts may need to participate in only parts of the services which are needed by them in any given year) are essential for effective state legislation, board guidelines, and operational procedures. Attention to the identified positive characteristics and the areas of potential problems prior to the preparation or modification of state legislation may well help SEAs which desire to initiate a structure of LEA collaboratives. These SEAs adherence to the cautions expressed by the respondent SEA directors may assist states avoid structural ambiguities or constraints which limit collaboratives' responsiveness to their member LEAs and the children they serve.

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Transitional and Follow-Along Services for Learning Disabled College Students

Little more than two decades have elapsed since Sam Kirk first proposed in 1963 that the term learning disabilities be applied to describe a group of handicapped children who despite normal intelligence displayed an enigmatic array of developmental and educational deficits (Wiederholt, 1974). The evolution of special education programs for such students was accelerated by the promulgation of the Children with Specific Learning Disabilities Act of 1969 (P.L. 91-230) and the subsequent passage of the landmark legislation entitled the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142). During the intervening years, the first generation of learning disabled children has progressed through the nation's public elementary and secondary schools with the assistance of legally mandated special education programs. Many of these students already have received their high school diplomas and some have chosen to advance their educations at colleges and universities throughout the country (Putnam, 1984; Winslow, 1982).

Although provisions of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-112) presently require that publicly supported post-secondary institutions afford an equal educational opportunity to the handicapped, colleges are not obligated to provide supplemental instructional services. Accordingly, a delivery system of special education programming, albeit commonplace at both the elementary and secondary levels, presently does not exist on most college campuses. Noteably absent are programs comparable to resource rooms which have benefited countless, college-bound, learning disabled students by providing individualized instruction that enabled them to master the academic content of the regular elementary and secondary education curricula (Dexter, 1982).

Nevertheless, virtually all post-secondary institutions currently offer some form of instructional support for academic underachievers. Developmental education programs like Ohio University's Academic Advancement Center have been created to provide remedial instruction for a growing population of underprepared college students. Within such an organizational framework exists a foundation for the formation of specialized services for the learning disabled. Moreover, developmental education programs may constitute the most economically efficient and pedagogically effective means for assuring an equal educational opportunity not only for the learning disabled, but for all handicapped students.

At the elementary school level, the resource room has become the predominant educational environment in which to remediate the academic deficiencies of the learning disabled (Cartwright, Cartwright & Ward, 1984). The mildly handicapped children who are assigned to this special education setting typically remain in the mainstream regular class for the majority of the school day. Their part-time placement in the resource room is intended to afford students the supplemental instruction that will enable them to master the academic content of the regular education curriculum. Each child characteristically is taught on a one-to-one basis or within a small group by a certificated special educator. Several variations of this individualized instructional approach have evolved at the secondary level. Among the more popular programmatic alternatives are the basic skills model, the tutorial model, and the learning strategies model (Johnston, 1984).

The major objective of the basic skills paradigm is to provide personalized remedial instruction in the tool subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic. The secondary special education teacher has the responsibility of increasing the literacy of resource room students. Through the enhancement of their grade level achievement in functional academic areas, it is presumed that the performances of the learning disabled in regular classes correspondingly will improve.

A less circuitous approach to upgrading achievement in the mainstream is reflected in the tutorial model. Rather than emphasizing the remediation of basic skills, the special educator instead tutors the learning disabled in regular classroom content areas. Thus, if a learning disabled student is progressing unsatisfactorily in a biology class, supplemental instruction in the resource room would be directed at the subject matter of that particular course.

In contrast to both the basic skills and tutorial approaches, the learning strategies model concerns neither functional literacy nor course content. According to Alley and Deshler (1979), this programmatic alternative entails teaching the learning disabled strategies that will facilitate their acquisition, organization, storage, and retrieval of information thereby preparing them to cope with the demands of the regular class curriculum. Simply stated, secondary resource room students learn how to learn and to apply thinking skills across all subject areas.

While no post-secondary educational institution receiving federal financial assistance legally can deny admission to a qualified handicapped high school graduate, only a relative few schools like Southern Illinois University, American International College, and the College of the Ozarks currently offer transitional or ongoing support programs for either incoming freshman or matriculating upperclassmen with learning disabilities (Winslow, 1982). However, a survey of 300 campuses conducted by Gruenberg (1983) revealed that 80 percent of the responding colleges had established developmental education programs for their academically underprepared students.

A fundamental goal of these remedial programs has been to reduce the numbers of drop-outs, course failures, and academic dismissals through the amelioration of learning skills and enhancement of the overall educational performances of high risk students. Among the most common support services provided by developmental educators within campus learning assistance centers are the following (Wilson, 1982):

> Non credit courses in remedial reading consisting of instruction in such areas as word decoding, comprehension, and rate.
>
> Non credit courses in remedial mathematics focusing on arithmetic operations, math reasoning and problem solving, as well as, basic algebra.
>
> Non credit courses in remedial writing emphasizing instruction in grammar, penmanship, spelling, composition organization, and written expression.
>
> Workshops and non credit study skills courses covering such topics as time management, note taking, test anxiety, and preparation for course exams.
>
> Tutoring services to augment instruction in credit bearing academic courses.
>
> Academic counseling, advisement, and monitoring of student progress in academic course work.

A comparison of the operations of developmental education programs with those of resource rooms reveals a discernable commonality of purpose. The ultimate objective of both programs is to provide supplemental instruction which will allow academically deficient students to succeed in the educational mainstream. Remediation of basic skills, tutoring in content areas, and the teaching of learning or study techniques represent three common means by which the mutual ends of developmental and special education are achieved.

Clearly, the creation of a costly new delivery system of academic support services for the learning disabled at either Ohio University or most other post-secondary educational institutions may be unnecessary. Rather, a reorganization of prevailing remedial programs and a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of developmental educators are required. Central to these reforms is the transformation of developmental education into post-secondary resource rooms through the implementation of special education teaching methodology. The adoption by developmental educators of such proven teaching procedures as competency-based instruction, diagnostic-prescriptive teaching, and individualized educational programming can ensure that remediation is tailored to the unique needs of the atypical learner rather than those of the entire class. Developmental educators thereby would recognize that the nature and educational needs of the learning disabled are more like those of other under prepared college students than they are different.

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Identifying Training Needs for Rural Special Educators

Introduction

Preservice training programs in special education provide specialized programming to meet the needs of exceptional children. Most programs do not differentiate between urban and rural issues in terms of personnel preparation (Helge, 1981). Nevertheless, a growing number of special education programs have become concerned with the education of exceptional children in rural environments as a phenomenon requiring additional specialized instruction. The advent of groups such as the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) and the National Rural Development Institute and concomitant journals and publications evidences the recognition of unique and pressing issues intrinsic to rural special education.

Marrs (1984) stated that teacher preparation programs across the country have not prepared sufficient numbers of qualified personnel for rural special education programs. Because instruction is often insufficient, difficulties with staff recruitment and retention abound. Attrition rates of 30 percent to 50 percent are the norm for rural special educators (Helge, 1983). Most programs simply have not trained special education teachers to cope with life in isolated, remote, and culturally distinct areas (Sontag & Burton, 1980). Ramifications of such ineffective training for rural special educators become even more acute when one considers that two thirds of all schools in the country are located in rural settings (Sher, 1978), and the majority of unserved handicapped children resides in these areas.

It is not surprising that rural preservice training in special education has been deemed a high priority need by professional organizations such as the Council for Exceptional Children CASE Research Division Committee and the National Education Association. In order to prepare a corps of teachers for the unique challenges of rural schools, Helge (1981) recommended that rural preparation programs offer curricula which (a) train personnel to work with a wide variety of handicapping conditions, (b) are data-based and field tested, (c) stress the importance of using available university and community resources, (d) incorporate local community value systems, and (e) provide ample opportunities for in-vivo training in the rural classroom. Helge (1981) contended that this type of training program is more likely to produce teachers who understand the differences between rural and urban special education and are aware of the state-of-the-art of rural special education including service delivery and alternate resources. Furthermore, an awareness of local community values will aid teachers in working with peers, parents, citizens, and agencies.

The literature in rural special education indicates a consensus in regard to several needs or issues unique to the rural environment. Perhaps the most dramatic difference between rural and urban special education revolves around the delivery of services. Services for exceptional children in rural areas are less available, more sporadic, and less differentiated (Helge, 1983; Marrs, 1984). Low-incidence disabilities receive particularly inadequate services in many rural systems (Helge, 1984). Due both to lack of funding and lack of qualified support personnel, the special education teacher may be the only service available for students with a wide variety of handicapping conditions.

The perceptions of rural special education personnel themselves confirm the inadequacy of current programs. Helge's (1983) survey of 200 rural special education directors and teachers in all 50 states underscores many basic deficiencies in current teacher training programs. Although almost all the respondents had ostensibly been trained for work with rural handicapped students, 97% of the respondents felt that they were not adequately trained and that most of their rural training took place "on the job." Consequently, 59% deemed experiential training as an essential (but often non-existent) aspect of preservice training. In general, most of the respondents felt that they needed more direct contact with all aspects of the rural educational environment. More than half of the respondents also indicated specific types of coursework necessary for effective teaching in rural special education. Such coursework included (a) service delivery strategies for low-incidence rural populations, (b) generic approaches to teaching rural handicapped children, (c) customs, mores, and cultures of rural areas, and (d) status of rural education service delivery systems.

In general, several themes emerge from Helge's (1983) survey. References to lack of services and the resultant need for general diverse special education skills, the importance of understanding realistically the culture of the specific rural environment, and the overriding importance of experiential training in rural settings predominated the responses. Hence, the single greatest weakness of training programs seemed to be the lack of realistic experiences in a rural community. Clearly, a successful training program must immerse itself directly within the communities it intends to serve.

The state of Louisiana is largely rural. Undoubtedly, many preservice programs are replete with the shortcomings identified by Helge's (1983) study. In addition, Louisiana has particular problems which are currently exacerbating the difficulty in training personnel for the handicapped population. Because of the decline in the oil industry, the economic situation is a grave one. Louisiana is currently leading the nation in unemployment. According to the United States Department of Labor statistics for June 1987, 11.2 percent of Louisiana's labor force is out of work. Universities and colleges have been forced to raise their tuition to offset financial problems. Additionally, the state's Professional Improvement Plan (PIP) which previously extended tuition waivers to teachers was completely cut in the Fall of 1985. Consequently, many teachers who were working on teacher education plans have been forced to discontinue their training because of financial problems. As Louisiana has an oil dependent economy and the forecast for the industry is pessimistic, it is assumed that teacher training efforts will continue to be adversely affected for some time to come.

Approximately 64 percent of Louisiana's residents live outside of urbanized areas of the state and almost half of these residents live in communities with a population less than 2,500. These rural areas are somewhat unique in several characteristics. Firstly, numerous ethnicities are represented by inhabitants; Yugoslavs, Hungarians, Creoles, Cajuns, Blacks, Vietnamese, and various other cultures are included in integrated and segregated rural communities. Louisiana is recognized to be a "melting pot" because the backgrounds of its residents are so diverse. However, in actuality most of these ethnic groups have not "melted" into the mainstream but rather have retained lifestyles consistent with their ethnic group. Secondly, the watery geography of Louisiana including the Mississippi River, the Gulf of Mexico, and a multitude of bayous has had considerable influence on living patterns of the state's inhabitants. These expanses of water have created numerous remote areas in which rural communities are separated from neighboring rural communities and families are distant to neighbors. In certain remote areas of the state, school boats are still used to bring children from the bayous to their schools. These bodies of water have also supported occupations which are dissimilar to the mainstream culture. Hunting, trapping, crabbing, and shrimping are examples of these economic endeavors. As these are seasonal occupations, they significantly affect school attendance because it is typical for all family members to participate in the work. And thirdly, religion is a very important characteristic of almost all communities in Louisiana. Its considerable significance is exemplified by the fact that public funds are used to provide services for parochial schools, e.g., transportation and special education. The separation of church and state in Louisiana has not been established with the clarity demonstrated in the rest of the country.

Method

The purpose of this study was to implement a needs assessment procedure to identify training competencies for rural special education teachers in Louisiana. A needs assessment tool modeled after Helge's (1983) was developed by Southeastern Louisiana University's Project Rural Return, a federally funded project designed to recruit and retain special educators for rural areas by providing them with a rural special education curriculum. The needs assessment questionnaire addressed crucial issues focusing on the curriculum offered by the program as well as the personal and professional characteristics necessary for success in the rural classroom. This questionnaire was completed by the 24 members of the Rural Special Education Advisory Council which is comprised of special education administrators and teachers. Therefore, the needs assessment addressed rural special education training competencies from both an administrator's and teacher's perspective. The Trainee Task Force, comprised of eight Project Rural Return trainees, offered perceptions from a student's perspective.

The questionnaire contained Likert-scale responses. Data were tabulated to indicated the percentage of responses to each point on the Likert scale for every question. Because the results were tabulated separately for the Advisory Council and the Trainee Task Force, direct comparisons of teachers' versus students' perceptions can be made. Additionally, comparing the results of the present study to Helge's (1983) survey will provide an increased understanding of needs unique to Louisiana rural culture as well as needs shared by Louisiana with rural communities at large.

Results

Table 1 presents the results of the study in the questionnaire format for both the Advisory Council and the Trainee Task Force. A visual inspection revealed that at least 50 percent of both groups rated every item as either "moderately important" or "very important". Furthermore, for more than half the items, there were no responses indicating "not important". Since general agreement existed that all items had at least some importance, further analysis focused on determining which items were consistently rated as "very important" by a significant majority of respondents in each group. Consequently, items that indicated at least 70 percent consensus as "very important" were considered for discussion.

The Advisory Council demonstrated a high degree of consensus (i.e., at least 70%) on items 5, 6, 11, 12, 19, 22, 42, and 43. The Trainee Task Force demonstrated a high degree of consensus on items 7, 37, 43, 47, and 48. The implications of these results are discussed in the following section.

Discussion

Item 43, "working with a wide diversity of handicapping conditions" emerged as the one area which both groups identified as "very important". In terms of the analysis of the questionnaire, it may be concluded that working with a wide variety of handicapping conditions is the most pressing need as perceived by diverse professionals and paraprofessionals in rural special education. This conclusion reiterates Helge's (1981) recommendation that personnel need to be trained in a wide variety of handicapping conditions, largely because the rural special education teacher is the often the only service available within the community. Consequently, the special education teacher in a rural area frequently must deal with children with low-incidence handicaps, regardless of the teacher's area of certification or expertise. This response from the present study also parallels the findings from Helge's (1983) survey that rural special educators desired more generic teaching approaches as well as training for low-incidence populations.

The Advisory Council indicated several other areas of need. "Methods coursework" (#5) and "generic/noncategorical approaches to teaching rural exceptional children" (#6) reemphasize the need for training in a variety of exceptionalities. Items 11 and 12, "practicum in rural settings" and "observation opportunities" respectively, recall Helge's (1983) finding that rural special educators were in need of experiential training. The Advisory Council emphasized the need for "interpersonal communication skills" (#19). Because administrators are often more formally trained in consultation, they may value such skills highly. Item 22, "ability to cope with low incidence populations", is consistent with the necessity of dealing with a wide variety of handicaps. Finally, the Advisory Council agreed on the importance of "creativity and decision making strategies".

This rating may reflect a logical and necessary response by professionals currently in the field to many of the limitations imposed by rural settings, a problem which is exacerbated in Louisiana due to the current economic depression.

The Trainee Task Force differed in its consensus of the most important needs. These may result in part from specific ramifications of working in rural Louisiana. Item 7, "effective strategies for adapting curriculum", certainly reflects the concern of future special education teachers who are aware that a wide range of curricula is often unavailable, especially in limited fund states such as Louisiana. "Knowledge of current legislation" (#37) may be especially important in Louisiana where the pupil appraisal handbook, Bulletin 1508, contains eligibility criteria often unique to the state. The selection of "increased community involvement" (#47) implicitly recognizes the cultural wealth and diversity of the state. Finally, item 48, "availability of employment", seems an extremely appropriate concern for future special education teachers in a state with exceedingly high unemployment.

Programs that focus on rural special education need to reflect an awareness of the distinct educational environments and the unique strengths and weaknesses inherent to rural education. Competencies needed for successful rural teaching may be quite distinct from competencies needed for the urban environment. Effective preservice programs must identify and teach specific skills to deal with rural special education delivery of services and administration and prepare the teacher to cope with the effects of cultural pluralism. Such programs are more likely to produce competent teachers who will remain in the rural special education system.

Table 1

Needs Assessment Results for Advisory Council and Trainee Task Force by Percent of Response

Code:
4 = Very Important
3 = Moderately Important
2 = Occasionally Important
1 = Not Important

	Advisory Council				Trainee Task Force			
I. Quality of Preservice Training	4	3	2	1	4	3	2	1
1. Communication disorders in culturally diverse populations	33.3	29.2	29.2	8.3	50	25	25	0
2. Rural special education service delivery	29.2	54.2	8.3	4.1	62.5	37.5	0	0
3. Strategies for identifying services and scarce resources	54.2	33.3	16.7	0	62.5	37.5	0	0
4. Rural special education administration	45.8	20.8	20.8	12.5	37.5	50	12.5	0
5. Methods coursework	70.8	20.8	4.1	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
6. Generic/noncategorical approaches to teaching rural exceptional children	75	33.3	4.1	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
7. Effective strategies for adapting curriculum	66.7	29.2	4.1	0	87.5	12.5	0	0
8. Customs, mores, and cultures of rural areas	29.2	41.7	25	4.1	62.5	25	12.5	0
9. Testing and appraisal	45.8	41.7	12.5	0	62.5	37.5	0	0
10. Categorical coursework	58.3	29.2	12.5	0	43	57	0	0
11. Practicum in rural settings	70.8	25.0	4.1	0	37.5	37.5	25	0
12. Observation opportunities	70.8	29.2	0	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
13. Simulations of problem solving	45.8	45.8	8.3	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
14. Team management	45.8	41.7	4.1	0	50	50	0	0
15. General experiences in rural community	37.5	45.8	8.3	8.3	62.5	25	12.5	0

	4	3	2	1	4	3	2	1
16. Knowledge of transportation services	29.2	25	29.2	4.1	37.5	37.5	25	0
17. Exposure to rural independent living skills	41.7	45.8	12.5	0	37.5	37.5	25	0
18. Experience with rural technology	16.7	54.2	20.8	8.3	12.5	75	12.5	0
19. Interpersonal communication skills	75	20.8	4.1	0	37.5	37.5	25.	0
II. Competencies								
20. Coping with remoteness to services and resources	66.7	20.8	12.5	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
21. Strategies for locating resources	50	37.5	4.1	4.1	62.5	37.5	0	0
22. Ability to cope with low incidence populations	70.8	29.2	0	0	50	25	25	0
23. Pluralistic cultural awareness	16.7	62.5	12.5	8.3	50	37.5	12.5	0
24. Professional consulting skills	29.2	62.5	8.3	0	37.5	50	12.5	0
25. Working with peers	50	37.5	12.5	0	62.5	25.	12.5	0
26. Working with families	66.7	16.7	8.3	8.3	50	37.5	12.5	0
27. Working with community members	58.3	29.2	12.5	0	62.5	37.5	0	0
28. Working with itinerant service delivery personnel	58.3	33.3	8.3	0	50	50	0	0
29. Coping with remoteness to personal life	45.8	25	16.7	12.5	37.5	50	12.5	0
30. Knowledge or familiarity with type of rural community	20.8	62.5	16.7	0	37.5	50	12.5	0
31. Dealing with transient populations	45.8	33.3	12.5	8.3	50	25	25	0
32. Strategies for recruitment and retention	37.5	33.3	8.3	8.3	50	37.5	12.5	0
33. Interpersonal skills	37.5	62.5	0	0	37.5	37.5	25	0

	4	3	2	1	4	3	2	1
34. Understanding the context of a rural school and its environment	45.8	37.5	12.5	8.3	62.5	17.5	25	0
35. Understanding differences in rural and urban special education	20.8	54.2	20.8	4.1	62.5	25	12.5	0
36. Knowledge of effective service delivery models	50	45.8	0	0	50	37.5	12.5	0
37. Knowledge of current legislation (i.e. PL 94-142, LA 1508)	45.8	41.7	12.5	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
38. Diagnosing and treating communication in culturally diverse students	33.3	45.8	20.8	0	14	72	14	0
39. Nondiscriminatory assessments	41.7	37.5	20.8	0	62.5	25	12.5	0
40. Respect of minority cultures	45.8	37.5	12.5	0	62.5	12.5	25	0
41. Simplifying forms for parents from different cultures	66.7	16.7	16.7	0	50	12.5	32.5	0
42. Creativity and decision-making strategies	83.4	8.3	8.3	0	50	50	0	0
43. Working with wide diversity of handicapping conditions	95.8	4.1	0	0	75	75	0	0
III. Other factors for success in the rural environment.								
44. Personal attractions of rural environment (recreational opportunities, slower pace, etc.)	50	16.7	25	8.3	50	32	12.5	0
45. Increased contact with students	45.8	37.5	16.7	0	62.5	12.5	25	0
46. Increased contact with parents	50	33.3	12.5	0	62.5	12.5	25	0
47. Increased community involvement	41.7	41.7	16.7	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
48. Availability of employment	58.3	20.8	20.8	0	75	12.5	12.5	0
49. Being raised in the same community	25	37.5	20.8	16.7	25	37.5	25	12.5

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TEACHER INSTITUTE SESSIONS

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 27

1:00 - 5:00 PM

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ACUPRESSURE IN THE RURAL CLASSROOM

Acupressure, a 6000-year-old oriental folk-art based on traditional oriental medicine, has proven to be a tool for interested teachers, parents and others, including students, to help themselves and others maintain wellness and to provide the relaxation necessary for learning to take place. Performing simple acupressure releases can be done without understanding all the theories and without the necessity for removing any clothing.

Santa Cruz County Office of Education provides special education classes throughout the county's two cities as well as in its rural areas. Those classes now include children with these disorders: severe emotional disturbance, autism and severe and profound mental retardation, orthopedic handicaps, infants' developmental problems, pre-school developmental problems, and multi-handicapped. In 1980, when Project PRES conducted its pilot program, the County Office provided classes for children with severe disorders of language, as well.

This is a story of the beginnings of Project PRES, Santa Cruz County Office of Education's acupressure project, and how it grew.

SUZI'S STORY

John and Mary were elated--their faith, prayers and hard work with their foster daughter, Suzi, had been rewarded. After a year of struggle to keep their bearings while this latest foster child had tested their endurance in a thousand ways, amazing progress had been made in the last 6 weeks. Taking Suzi had been a calculated risk--they knew that this 8-year old had never talked, that cerebral palsy kept her legs and hips from moving or supporting her weight, that neurological problems caused her to tantrum uncontrollably many times a day. They also knew that she needed a stable, loving environment with parents who would expend every ounce of effort to help her achieve whatever her unique potential would be.

At the end of a year it appeared that their best efforts had been in vain-- Suzi's 20 screeching, flailing tantrums each day continued unabated, as did her resistance to touch and cuddling, and there was no psychomotor progress despite almost daily physical therapy sessions. Constipation was a major problem; the cerebral palsy kept her lower abdomen as constricted as her legs and hips. And now Mary was suffering from frequent stress migraines!

Tonight was a special event--the first time they had been able to eat in a restaurant with Suzi. It didn't seem real yet, so many changes in such a short time. Six weeks ago the school nurse had encouraged them to participate in a pilot study of acupressure for handicapped students. Suzi had been in the first group of six students who received one acupressure session each week from a professional acupressure therapist.

After their first restaurant meal with Suzi they drove over to the school for the meeting with staff and other parents whose children had been involved in the pilot study. They hoped that acupressure had been as effective for those children, but Suzi's progress was uppermost in their minds. She had been so quiet and settled in the restaurant; they hoped the magic would hold during the school meeting.

At the school there was an undertone of excitement; the other parents and staff were obviously relaxed and chatted enthusiastically before the meeting started. Suzi played quietly on the floor, now attending to toys that she had previously ignored or pushed away.

Mary's eyes filled with tears when it was their turn to talk about Suzi's changes. She wiped her eyes often as she described how Suzi's raging tantrums had diminished quickly, and disappeared completely after the second session; how Suzi now responded to her physical therapy without resistance and with real progress. She had new strength and coordination in her hips and legs. Her constipation was gone, and now she was toilet-trained for the first time! And last week Suzi had spoken her first word--Mama!

Mary also told the group about her own sessions with the therapist for her devastating migraines. After her first two sessions the headaches were already fewer and milder. Staff members joined in describing their own experiences with acupressure--for chronically stiff neck and shoulders, for chest anxiety, for low back pain, for tennis elbow.

PETER'S STORY

Sam and Joanne told about their 13-year old son, Peter, that night. The staff and parents who listened carefully thought they were talking about two different people. Peter had made the most progress of all the students chosen for the study. Before his six sessions Peter was very close to being excluded from his special education classes because his incorrigible behavior made him a danger to the other students. He was labeled as both Severe Disorder of Language and Severely Emotionally Disturbed--and his parents and teachers all agreed that he was SEVERE!

Peter was feared and avoided by everyone--teachers and students alike. He was small for his age, but very inventive in destructive ways. He sneaked tools from his father's shop and brought them to school to damage other kids' bikes; he used scissors to cut up the girls' clothes, while they were wearing them; he never brought his gym clothes so he sat on the bench, poking, pinching and taunting other kids. He was very uncoordinated and could not play soccer, ride a skateboard, play on the gym bars, swim or ride a bicycle. Patches of hair were falling out and he wore a cap while he dawdled in class, doing nothing, very slowly. He had made some progress when he first entered the program two years ago, coming up to grade 2-3 in his math and language, then he quit trying. For over a year he had made no progress and was absent about 40% of the time--a real relief for staff and students.

At home Peter was equally obnoxious--slamming the door as he arrived home each day, sullen and angry. He usually swore at Joanne and his 6-year old brother, Tony, before he disappeared, returning late for dinner with no explanation of his whereabouts. Sam and Joanne suspected what the teacher knew, that Peter's frequent absences due to headaches and stomachaches were excuses to avoid retaliation for his misbehavior at school. After each "bad" day of damage and destruction, Peter would not appear at school for a day or two, hoping that time would soften the memory and the response from his angry schoolmates and teacher. When the teacher suggested that Peter be included in the acupressure study Sam and Joanne were more than willing--they had already tried everything else, including many months of professional counseling for the family.

Now, six weeks later they beamed as they described the new Peter. He came home after school with 100's on math and spelling papers, grinning shyly as he showed them to Joanne and Tony. Often he had his Mom and brother lie down on the floor or couch so he could demonstrate acupressure on them. He began spending time with Tony, no longer teasing and hurting him, but teaching him how to use the skateboard and playing soccer with the neighborhood kids.

At school Peter was also a new person--having raised his academic performance to grades 5-7, at grade level in some areas. His hair was growing in and he no longer wore the cap; he had apologized to the teachers and other students for his previous behavior and seemed genuinely interested in making friends. He noticed girls and their clothes regularly and was learning to play soccer, use the gym bars and play cooperatively. And he had not missed a single day of school in the entire six weeks.

That night four other families described dramatic changes in their children--shy, withdrawn, autistic children who were now making eye contact, talking, even hugging their parents and staff. Severely orthopedically handicapped children were now free of pain and making much more progress in academic areas. Severely retarded students were now taking care of themselves, helping at home, and doing acupressure in class for other students and their teachers.

PROJECT PRES PILOT AND INTERN STUDIES

That momentous meeting was held April, 1980 in a small town on the coast of central California. The first six students received their sessions that spring and during the summer 37 Santa Cruz County Office of Education staff members received training in acupressure on their own time and at their own expense. The Superintendent, an Assistant Superintendent, all three special education Principals, both nurses, a psychologist, several teachers, and aides all studied and practiced acupressure, hoping to bring these new skills to their work in the fall.

In the fall the Pilot Study was completed as six more students received their acupressure sessions from the professional therapist with the same striking results. During the fall the staff members were planning their Intern Study in which 15 newly trained staff and trained volunteers would give eight acupressure sessions to 15 different students and record their results on an expanded record form. During the spring of 1981 this study was completed, and much to our surprise the newly trained acupressure "interns" had the same excellent results we had seen with the professional acupressurist.

A brief summary of the Pilot and Intern study shows that 23 students ranging in age from 6-22, including severely/profoundly developmentally disabled, severe disorders of language, severely emotionally disturbed and orthopedically handicapped students received 6-8 acupressure sessions in as many weeks. All of the students showed some improvement; 87% made measurable progress in at least 3 of the 4 IEP areas. Examples of changes that occurred for several students include:

Sensory-Motor: Fewer involuntary movements, muscle relaxation, greater motor control, improved fine motor control, able to follow rhythm, improved handwriting, eye/hand coordination, improved balance.

Cognitive/Communication: Initiates language, used language spontaneously for the first time, increased attention span, less distracted, completes homework, increased reading speed, sequencing improved, visual/auditory memory improved.

Social/Emotional: Behavior/compliance improved, tasks completed, more sociable, more laughter, joking, self-care improved, verbalizes problems, less fighting and aggression, stereotypic mannerisms reduced, motivation increased, eye contact increased, less frustration and crying, improved body image, shows affection.

Health: Less physical tension, allergies and asthma improved, bedwetting reduced or eliminated, chronic pain reduced, digestion improved, ear infections cleared, bladder/bowel control achieved, acne cleared, bruising reduced, self-injurious behavior reduced or eliminated.

WHAT IS ACUPRESSURE?

Acupressure, older than acupuncture, is practiced widely in most oriental cultures by skilled therapists as well as among family and friends. The forms of acupressure used in Santa Cruz programs, Jin Shin DoTH and Therap/Ease, adhere closely to the acupuncture points, meridians, and symptoms of imbalance of traditional Chinese medicine. The experience, however, is quite different from acupuncture. There are no needles involved, and giver and receiver enter into a unique bond of trust and caring.

While acupressure is still not thoroughly understood or explained by Western science, the meridians (wiring) and points (outlets) of this system are associated with the flow of the body's own electrical current. When stiffness and tension are present in muscles and joints, the flow of this current is blocked. Stimulating the points by holding pairs of points for one or more minutes releases this flow, thereby loosening muscles and opening mental and emotional processes. Acupressure is now being taught in many community colleges, in hospital wellness and stress reduction classes, and in Holistic Health schools.

PRES WORKSHOPS OFFERED

In the late spring of 1981 Project PRES (Physical Response Education Systems) of the Santa Cruz County Office of Education began offering simple acupressure workshops for staff and parents of its 35 special education classes. Soon teachers in neighboring districts began requesting workshops; then educational and health conference presentations started introducing acupressure as a method of stress reduction for staff, students and parents. Since that time over 25,000 health and education professionals and parents have participated in a variety of PRES workshops throughout the US, and in Canada, Italy and China. Workshops have been conducted in rural and cosmopolitan areas throughout the country for school systems, including teachers, administrators, school nurses and parent groups. Often parents are the catalysts for districts to get started with acupressure training for both staff and parents.

An Acupressure Awareness workshop of 1½-2 hours introduces the theory and history of acupressure, describes the Pilot and Intern studies, and teaches participants to give and receive a Neck and Shoulder Release.

The Level I skills workshop of up to 6 hours (similar to the 4-hour session to be presented Saturday, February 27, from 1-5 p.m.) teaches the Energy Exercises, 30 basic acupoint locations, simple patterns for brief (5 minutes or less) acupressure sessions for headaches, constipation, neck, shoulder and back tension, insomnia, etc., all of which can be done sitting up at home or in the classroom.

The Level II workshop of 9 hours reviews the content of Level I, teaches an additional 15 points and includes practice with more involved full-body acupressure sessions of 20-30 minutes. Level III & IV introduce staff and parents to related Energy forms, including Educational Kinesiology, Shiatsu, Zero Balancing, Jin Shin Do™, Therap/Ease, Tai Chi and Chi Kung.

PRES PUBLICATIONS

The September, 1983 issue of ACADEMIC THERAPY carried the first article about the PRES experiment with acupressure. In March, 1987 the first book on the subject, HIGH TECH TOUCH: Acupressure in the Schools, was published by Academic Therapy and includes classroom packets and a practice tape. There is now an extensive list of publications by and about PRES. This publications list and a free copy of the PRES quarterly newsletter are available on request. For the newsletter or information on workshops in your area, contact PROJECT PRES, 809-H Bay Avenue, Capitola, CA 95010.

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WRITE FOR RURAL EDUCATION POWER

WHAT IS POWER WRITING? . . .

* Power Writing assigns a numerical value to words, sentences, and paragraphs: 1st Power for the main idea; 2nd Power for a major detail; and 3rd Power for a minor detail.

Example:

- animals (1st Power)
    - dog (2nd Power)
        - collie (3rd Power)
    - cat (2nd Power)
        - Siamese (3rd Power)
    - bird (2nd Power)
        - robin (3rd Power)

* 4th Power will explain 3rd Power; 5th Power will explain 4th Power; and each successive Power will explain the Power preceding it.

THE 12 STAGES. . .

* Power Writing starts at mastery of 3-sentence paragraphs and progresses, in easily-mastered 12 stages, to 7-paragraph reports and essays. Power Writing thus moves in a sequential development, from short to longer writings.

* The 12 Stages (at each stage some important concept in Power, form, grammar, and sentence patterning forms the core of teaching:

Stages 1-2-3. . .Paragraph 1 2 2

Students are given the 1st Power sentence and must add two 2nd Power sentences to complete a 3-sentence paragraph.

Put the word two in the 1st Power sentence through Stage 7.

Vary the patterning of the 1st Power sentence.

Students must write two complete sentences with periods and capital letters.

Stage 4. . .Paragraph 1 2 2

Students create their own 1st Power sentence.

2nd Power transitions, signals, semaphores.

Conventions 1-8

Stage 5. . .Paragraph 1 2 3 2 3

3rd Power transitions

Conventions 1-9

Stage 6. . .Paragraph 1 2 3 2 3

Conventions 1-10

Stage 7. . .Pargraph 1 2 3 2 3

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-6

Stage 8. . .Paragraph 1 2 3 2 3 2 3

Put the word *three* in 1st Power sentences through Stage 12.

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-12

Stage 9. . .Moving the 1st Power sentence to different locations

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-19

Stage 10. . .Essay 1 2 2 2

Paragraph a Stage 8 at the 1st Power and each of the 2nd Power sentences.

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-26

Stage 11. . .Essay 1 2 2 2

Stage 10 expanded to a minimum of 3 sentences per paragraph.

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-33

Stage 12. . .Essay 1 2 3 2 3 2 3

Conventions 1-10

Sentence Patterns 1-39

CONVENTIONS OF FORM AND LITERACY. . .

* During the first three Stages, students write many three-sentence paragraphs while the teacher circulates to provide individual help right at the student's seat; thus, the student masters many of his errors before they become reinforced.

* By the end of Stage 6, the student has in his control the following conventions of Form and Literacy. . .

1. Use ink.
2. Have one-inch margins on all four sides of the paper.
3. Control neatness (no crossouts nor ink erasures).
4. Indent the opening sentence of a paragraph one inch.
5. Write complete sentences.
6. Use proper grammar.
7. Spell correctly.
8. Punctuate properly.
9. Eliminate the word there from the beginning of a sentence.
10. De-emphasize the use of the verb to be.

TRANSITIONS. . .

* In the following Tables of Transitions, the 2nd Power Signals get introduced at Stage 4; the 3rd Power, at Stage 5; and the TerminalSignals, at Stage 9.

* 2nd Power Transitions. . .

one
another
the other
also
next
finally

first
second
third
besides
then
firstly

moreover
furthermore
above all
in addition to
to begin with
secondly

Repetition of a word, words, or idea from 1st Power

* 3rd Power Transitions

specifically
for instance

for example
in other words

Repetition of a word, words, or idea from 2nd Power

- Terminal Signals
  - in conclusion
  - in summary
  - as a result
  - in short
  - to sump up
  - to conclude
  - for these reasons
  - I conclude that

- Red-Alert Signals
  - however
  - but
  - nevertheless

SENTENCE PATTERNS. . .

* Starting at Stage 7, the student learns the first six of thirty-nine sentence patterns, which will provide him with style and precision. He masters the grammar and punctuation knowledge for each pattern; he sees models of each pattern in literature; and he uses each pattern in his own writing.

- Stage 7
  1. Use strong, active verbs.
  2. Ask a question.
  3. Use an exclamatory sentence.
  4. Open with an adverb.
  5. Open with a prepositional phrase.
  6. Write a sentence in which the verb precedes the subject.

- Stage 8
  7. Use conversation or a quotation.
  8. Use apposition.
  9. Open with an adverbial clause.
  10. Use parallel structure.
  11. Open with an adjective.
  12. Open with an adjective phrase.

- Stage 9
  13. Open with a present infinitive.
  14. Open with a perfect infinitive.
  15. Open with a present participle.
  16. Open with a past participle.
  17. Open with a perfect participle.
  18. Open with a direct object.
  19. Open with a verb.

- Stage 10
  20. Open with a present gerund.
  21. Open with a perfect gerund.
  22. Use a restrictive adjective clause.
  23. Use a non-restrictive adjective clause.
  24. Open with a noun clause.
  25. Open with a predicate noun.
  26. Open with a predicate adjective.

- Stage 11
  27. Write a compound sentence, using a comma before conjunctions.
  28. Write a compound sentence, with semicolon, no conjunction.
  29. Write a compound sentence using the semicolon before conjunctions because commas already appear in the sentence.
  30. Write a compound sentence using the semicolon before and a comma after certain connectives.
  31. Write a compound sentence with elliptical construction.
  32. Write a compound sentence with an introductory, or general, statement followed by a colon and a specific statement.
  33. Use a parenthetical expression between the subject and the verb.

- Stage 12
  34. Open with an introductory series of appositives, with a dash and a summarizing subject.
  35. Use an emphatic appositive at the end of a sentence, following a colon.
  36. Use an emphatic appositive at the end of a sentence, following a dash.
  37. Use an internal series of appositives, enclosed by a pair of dashes.
  38. Open with a nominative absolute.
  39. Use a periodic sentence.

THE WRITING PROCESS. . .

* Power Writing embodies all of the writing processes: pre-writing, drafting, receiving response, revising, editing, and evaluation.

* Power Writing includes a skill, POWERSTORMING, which provides many oral language activities.

* Power Writing includes a CHECKLIST FOR A POWER WRITER, in which a student learns to evaluate himself through an editing process.

1ST POWER SENTENCES. . .

* for teacher workshops

1. Rural students may participate in at least two community vocational experiences.
2. Rural families need two special services.
3. Students with special needs should attend regular classes.
4. American Indians encounter special problems in the mainstream culture.
5. The training of teachers of rural students needs to focus upon special areas.
6. The rural teacher often faces larger issues than just meeting the educational needs of a student, especially when the student also has a developmental disability.
7. Rural education students often lack social skills for success in school.
8. How can teachers become rural specialists?
9. Teaching in rural education provides two satisfactions.
10. All things considered, rural education has two favorable aspects.

* for student writing

1. Two February holidays honor American presidents.
2. Americans celebrate July 4 in at least two ways.
3. The Thanksgiving holiday has two purposes.
4. I enjoy two favorite sports.
5. I can use my English skills in two ways.
6. My school has two special helpers.
7. On the playground I should practice two safety rules.
8. To enjoy school more, I should do two things.
9. Exercising has two benefits.
10. What two things do I like about my school?

MODEL STAGES. . .

* The following paragraphs and short essay illustrate thd evelopment of an idea from three sentences to five sentences to seven sentences to four paragraphs.

- Stage 4

  There are at least two ways that I can use my English skills. One of them is in reading. A second is in writing.

- Stage 5

  I can use my English skills in at least two ways. First, I can use them in reading. My appreciation of stories will be deeper if I learn to analyze a writer's style. Second, I will be able to use my skills in writing. My paragraphs will be better if I apply rules of grammar.

- Stage 6

  I can use my English skills in at least two ways. First, I can use them in reading. I will appreciate stories more if I practice analysis of a writer's style. Second, I can use English skills in writing. My paragraphs will improve if I apply rules of grammar.

- Stage 7 (with sentence patterning)

  In at least two ways I can use my English skills. First, I can use them in reading. If I practice analysis of a writer's style, I will appreciate stories more. Second, I can use English skills in writing. If I apply rules of grammar, my paragraphs will improve.

- Stage 8

  In at least three ways I can use my English skills. First, I can use them in reading. If I practice analysis of a writer's style, I will appreciate stories more. Second, I can use English skills in writing. With use of rules of grammar, my paragraphs will improve. Third, I can use my skills in speaking. If I use strong verbs, I will get the attention of my audience.

* Stage 10

In what three ways might I use my English skills?

First, I can use them in ways that will improve my reading ability. Practicing analysis of a writer's style, I will appreciate stories more.

Second, I can use English skills in writing. Using good rules of grammar will improve my paragraphs.

Third, I can use my skills in speaking. Using strong verbs will get the attention of my audience.

SUMMARY. . .

* Power Writing teaches the student to communicate ideas through well-designed, simple, striking prose.

* Power Writing sharpens writing skills with practical techniques for achieving brevity, coherence, clarity, and action.

* Power Writing provides stage-by-stage personsl guidance in development of a student's own style.

* Power Writing strives for the goal of 100 literacy.

* * *